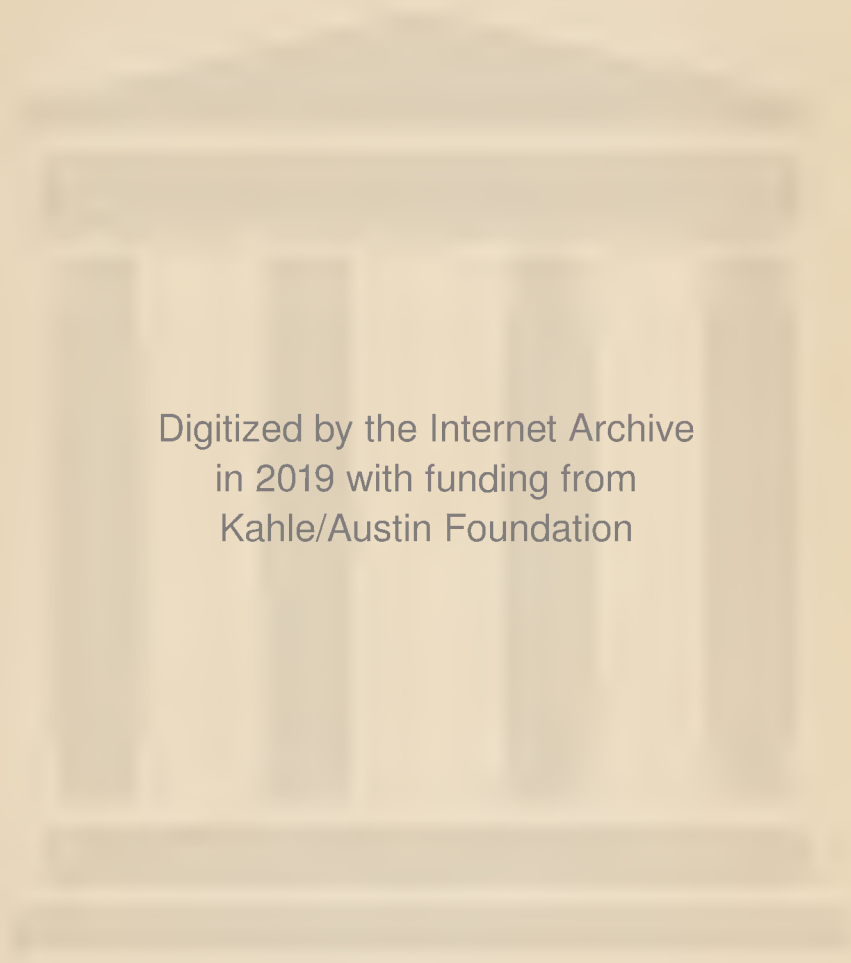


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SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD



John Amador

THE MAKERS OF CANADA

SIR JOHN A.
MACDONALD

BY

GEORGE R. PARKIN

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PREFACE

BY common consent Sir John Alexander Macdonald has been assigned the foremost place among the statesmen whom the public life of Canada has hitherto produced. Popular opinion on this point has been ratified by the stricter and measured judgment of the ablest men among his Canadian contemporaries with whom he was brought into close personal and official contact. It was equally ratified, even during his lifetime, by opinion in Britain, where those who best knew his work recognized in him one of the foremost statesmen of the empire. At his death the creation of a peerage for his widow put a special stamp of national recognition upon the singular services which he had rendered to Canada and the nation. A memorial tablet in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral—his statue adorning the squares of most of the larger Canadian cities—indicate the general desire to perpetuate his memory.

If special honour is due to those who by wise constructive statesmanship lay broad and deep the foundations of a great state, then to such honour Sir John Macdonald is fairly entitled.

No public man has ever in Canada won in an equal degree the sustained admiration of his fellow-citizens, and at the same time their affection, as

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had Macdonald at the time of his death. That he should have done this in spite of grave political errors and acknowledged personal defects, and as the general outcome of a life spent in the very furnace of party conflict, makes the achievement all the more striking.

For many years before Confederation his history is an essential part of the political history of the province of Canada as then constituted ; for nearly twenty-five years afterwards it is practically that of the whole Dominion. While many men and many forces contributed to that great end, it is scarcely an exaggeration to say that it was his personality which in 1867 made the confederation of British North America possible. Rightly understood this period was as critical for the empire as it was for the colony itself. No one can doubt that the whole future development of the imperial system is destined to be profoundly affected by the course of action then taken.

It was fortunate that at such a time Canada possessed a public man who was versed in all the intricacies of local politics, and endowed with the peculiar skill which creates and holds together parliamentary majorities, and who at the same time had a mind capable of grasping the problems of a broad national statesmanship. The colonial politician, guided by a few dominant principles, gradually developed, under the pressure of circumstances and the needs of a great occasion, into

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an imperial statesman who has left a lasting stamp upon the policy of the nation.

The confederation of Canada under the Crown inaugurated the new idea and the new organization of the empire. That organization is still far from complete. Other great groups of colonies are feeling their way towards a consolidation similar to that which has conferred such immense advantage on the Dominion. The empire as a whole begins to realize that it has not yet reached its final goal in the process of political evolution.

The period in which we live is, therefore, one of national transition where every lesson of experience has extreme value. The work of the men who laid well and truly the constitutional foundations of the Dominion has now stood the test of nearly forty years of stress and strain. A political system which commands public confidence, a healthy national spirit, great material prosperity, and well grounded hope for an ever-widening and successful future are results apparent to the ordinary observer.

The labours of Macdonald and his fellow-workers in adapting British constitutional principles to a federal system have become a part, and no unimportant part, of our national heritage. A recognition of the value of the work they accomplished will facilitate further national development.

The historical facts of a period tend to group themselves around its strongest and most repre-

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sentative personality. The man's history becomes the history of his time. Thus Canadians will always associate with the figure of their great leader the group of events which transformed their country from a number of isolated colonies, provincial in thought and policy, into a consolidated and self-reliant Dominion, filled with those hopes of a vast future which are naturally inspired by the possession of one-half of a great continent.

Even before the end of his life Macdonald had come to be looked upon as embodying, more than any one else, the spirit and purpose of the Canadian people. The tradition is one which seems likely to grow with the growth of the Dominion and with the fuller and more general recognition of the significance of the work he did and of the critical character of the period in which that work was accomplished.

My aim in this volume will be to bring this tradition within the limits of true historical perspective, so far as this is possible in a limited space and in dealing with events still close at hand. I wish to outline concisely, but at the same time clearly, the career of the man who guided the destinies of my country through the anxious years which preceded Confederation and the difficult and not untroubled ones which followed the union of the provinces.

For such a condensed biography there seems a distinct need. Sketches of Macdonald's career were

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written during his life, but mainly for party purposes and with a strong party bias. The two large volumes in which, since his death, Mr. Pope has ably redeemed the trust committed to him of being the literary executor of his old chief, and those in which Colonel Macpherson has embodied many of his uncle's most important speeches, may be recommended to all who have the wish and the opportunity to study the details of Canadian politics. To both I have been constantly indebted. But either of these works is too voluminous, in these days of many books, for readers who can only spare the time to master essential facts. It is for such readers that this short biography is intended. I hope that in trying to condense I have not become obscure; that in the effort to be brief, no fact of major significance has been omitted.

It is not an easy task to separate in all cases the false from the true, or to form an impartial judgment in writing of a man whose every public word and deed was regarded from a party point of view at a period when party passion was extreme; whose actions and purposes are perhaps as unfairly judged by the adulation of supporters as by the hostile interpretation of opponents.

It may be a century before the final biography of Macdonald can be written, and his true place among contemporary statesmen assigned to him on clear historical grounds. Meanwhile, an attempt to separate the kernel of his achievement as a

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statesman from the husk of political controversy, in which the work of public men is so often hidden, may serve a patriotic purpose. It is in this belief that the present volume has been prepared.

I have to acknowledge valuable assistance given to me in the preparation of Chapters V, VI and VII, by Mr. W. L. Grant, Beit Lecturer in Colonial History in the University of Oxford; assistance which he was specially qualified to give through his own studies of contemporaneous Canadian history made in connection with the biography of his distinguished father, the late Principal Grant. I must also gratefully acknowledge my indebtedness to Dr. W. D. Le Sueur, whose sound judgment and full knowledge have been of inestimable advantage in the revision of the MS. and proof.

G. R. P.

London, August, 1907.

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CHAPTER I

EARLY LIFE AND TRAINING

1815 to 1844

LIKE many other men who have won distinction in building up the empire abroad, the future premier of the Dominion was of Scottish birth. His ancestors, respectable merchants or farmers, had the usual traditional links with a remote past, but nothing apparently to distinguish them from other Highland families. His father, Mr. Hugh Macdonald, was a native of Sutherlandshire who had removed as a young man from his native village in the north to Glasgow, where he became a manufacturer in a small way, and was married to Miss Helen Shaw of that city, also of Highland descent. Of this marriage there were born five children, of whom John Alexander, the subject of this biography, was the third. The date of his birth was January 11th, 1815, the year of Waterloo.

The lad was in the fifth year of his age when in 1820 his father, whose business ventures in Glasgow had not been successful, resolved to emigrate to Canada.

Thus, while his extraction was Scottish, his whole training was essentially Canadian. His boy-

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ish inspirations came from the country which he was to consolidate and rule.

The family settled first in the town of Kingston, in the province of Ontario, then the most important military post and social centre of Upper Canada. The early attempts of the father to find a business footing in Kingston having failed, the family removed in succession to two of the small neighbouring settlements, Hay Bay and Stone Mills, on the Bay of Quinté. The years spent there seem to have been equally unsuccessful, from a business point of view, and in 1836 Mr. Macdonald returned to Kingston, where he was appointed to a position in the Commercial Bank. Here his health began to fail and he died five years later, in 1841, at the age of fifty-nine.

Though evidently unstable in purpose and unequal to the rough work of a new country, Mr. Macdonald seems to have been a man of some ability and a kindly heart, with a keen desire, truly Scottish, that his children should get education. But it is evident that the son owed little of his great qualities to paternal heredity. His mother, who lived until 1862, was of stronger fibre, and was apparently the binding force which held the family together through many anxious years. She is described as a woman of great intellectual vigour and strong personality, quiet in manner and with a keen sense of humour. Her son was devoted to her, and as she lived to the age of eighty-five,



Early home of Sir John A. Macdonald

SCHOOL DAYS

she watched the earlier stages of his brilliant career.

Meanwhile the lad had been for five years, between the ages of ten and fifteen, a pupil at the Kingston Grammar School. In this brief space was compressed his whole formal education, beyond what had been received at elementary schools. Even school life must have been weighted with anxieties. "I had no boyhood," he once said to a friend. "From the age of fifteen I began to earn my own living."

But already at school one quality which marked the man—that of winning the affection of those around him—seems to have asserted itself in the boy. "I like to remember those early school days when John Macdonald and myself were pupils at the same school, he being one of the older boys and I one of the younger," said Sir Oliver Mowat at the unveiling of Macdonald's statue in 1895. "He was as popular with the boys then as he afterwards became with men."

Of university training he had none. The circumstance was to him a matter of lasting regret; but it is one which brings out in stronger relief the natural ability and energy of a mind which triumphed over the deficiencies of education, and held its own among men of the highest culture. Omnivorous reading, to which he was passionately addicted to the end of his career, became the substitute for a university course.

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On leaving school in 1830, he at once entered upon the study of law in the office of Mr. George Mackenzie, a friend of his father with whom he lodged. His school-boy age at this time suggests the duties of a junior clerk or office boy rather than serious legal study. Apparently during the whole course of his law studies he was earning his own living and probably assisting his family, so that he must have received wages for his office work.

He seems to have inspired confidence almost at once, for as early as 1832, while still a young student, he was sent to look after the business of a branch office opened at Napanee, and in 1833 he went, by arrangement with Mr. Mackenzie, to Picton to take charge of the law office of Mr. L. P. Macpherson, in the absence of that gentleman from Canada.

For a political career the experience thus gained was doubtless most valuable. The practice of a country lawyer in Canada brings him into singularly close touch with the difficulties and needs, the passions, prejudices and peculiarities of the farming population which forms the political backbone of the country. For the special work lying before him, this training perhaps meant as much as any that even a university could give.

Of these early years of struggle and hard work little has been brought to light worthy of special record as illustrating the character of the young man, or as giving clear indication of the great

STUDENT AND BARRISTER

career which awaited him. Few men of equal mark in later life have had a youth so devoid of memorable incident.

There are suggestions in fragments of correspondence that he had not only secured the trust of his employers, but had also attracted the special interest of others beside those under whom he worked. A cheerful disposition, joined to industrious habits, appears to have made him a favourite in the small circle in which he moved. His life at this stage was the life of many an ambitious and energetic law student in Canada to-day: a round of ordinary office duties, lightened by the pleasant social intercourse of a stirring provincial town.

The exceptional qualities of leadership which marked his later career were to be developed in the slow process of time and events.

On February 6th, 1836, he was called to the bar and immediately opened an office in Kingston, thus entering upon the practice of the law on his own account at the early age of twenty-one. Business seems to have come to him at once, partly no doubt from his previous connection with principals having a large practice, and partly through the impression which his abilities had already made on those who knew him.

That he had still to overcome the crudity and impetuosity of youth, a curious story shows. It is thus told by Mr. Pope: "In his first case, which

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was at Picton, Mr. Macdonald and the opposing counsel became involved in an argument, which, waxing hotter and hotter, culminated in blows. They closed and fought in open court to the scandal of the judge who immediately instructed the crier to enforce order. This crier was an old man, personally much attached to Mr. Macdonald, in whom he took a lively interest. In pursuance of his duty, however, he was compelled to interfere. Moving towards the combatants and circling round them he shouted in stentorian tones, 'Order in the court, order in the court,' adding in a low but intensely sympathetic voice as he passed near his protégé, 'Hit him, John!' I have heard Sir John Macdonald say that, in many a parliamentary encounter in after years, he had seemed to hear above the excitement of the occasion, the voice of the old crier whispering in his ear the words of encouragement, 'Hit him, John!'" This escapade does not seem to have affected his legal career.

The interesting fact was often recalled in later times that, during the first year of his practice, two young men marked out for future distinction, Oliver Mowat and Alexander Campbell, entered his office as students. Twenty-eight years later the three men were members of the same cabinet. Of the three, one died as prime minister of Canada ; one as lieutenant-governor of his native province, after having been its premier for twenty-three

REBELLION OF 1837

years; the third, after having held several of the most important offices in the Dominion cabinet, also ended his career as lieutenant-governor of Ontario. All had been knighted in recognition of their distinguished public services. The coincidence of ability, opportunity and of actual achievement is noteworthy.

The years which marked the beginning of Macdonald's career were critical ones in the history of Canada. As we have seen he was called to the bar in 1836. In 1837 rebellion broke out headed by Papineau in Lower Canada, and by William Lyon Mackenzie in Upper Canada. To aid in its suppression the militia and volunteers were called out, and the young lawyer along with others shouldered his musket in defence of law and order.

The force to which he was attached was sent to Toronto. The rising in the Upper Province was speedily quelled, and his military service was therefore brief and bloodless. It is worth noting that one of his closest political friends, and one on whose aid he chiefly relied in after years for carrying Confederation and harmonizing the conflicting elements in the different provinces, Georges Etienne Cartier, was among those who had been carried away by the fiery and revolutionary eloquence of the French leader, Papineau. Sharing in the defeat of the rebels he fled from the country, but later availed himself of the general amnesty and returned to become one of

SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD

the most loyal upholders of British power in Canada.

In the year following the rebellion Macdonald was called upon in the course of his professional work to defend, under circumstances which attracted attention at the time, one of those who had participated in the uprising. During the rebellion much sympathy had been shown across the American border for those who had taken up arms against the government. This sympathy quickly took the form of active assistance. In November of the year following a party of Americans crossed the border at a point a little below Prescott on the St. Lawrence, captured a windmill there, and held it for some days against the forces sent to drive them out. The party was finally overcome, its leaders were arrested and tried by court-martial, and eleven of them were ultimately hanged. Among them was Von Schoultz, a Polish gentleman of independent means, who, after fighting in the cause of Polish liberty in Europe, had been led to believe that in Canada he would be equally serving the cause of freedom by joining the rebels.

The romance of political biography long credited Macdonald with a defence of the accused man so brilliant as to establish his legal reputation, but this myth has been dispelled by the sober facts of authentic history, which show that the counsel for the defence neither made nor could make

A VISIT TO ENGLAND

before the court-martial any speech at all in behalf of the prisoner, who pleaded guilty from the first, and, in the absence of all extenuating circumstances, was condemned and executed. A sum of money which he arranged to bequeath to his counsel, Macdonald declined to accept. In connection with the same events he was entrusted with the defence of Mr. Ashley, the jailer at Kingston, who was accused on insufficient grounds by the military authorities of having connived at the escape of some political prisoners. The vigour of his defence secured an acquittal for his client and increased his reputation as a lawyer, but damaged for a time his popularity, so strongly did public feeling run against the Americans who had wantonly invaded the country.

The years which immediately followed were marked only by hard work and increasing prosperity. In 1839 he became solicitor for the Commercial Bank, and soon after for a large Trust and Loan Company. The death of his old principal, Mr. George Mackenzie, greatly increased the circle of his clients.

In 1842 he paid his first visit to England, partly for the sake of his health, which had been shaken by a severe illness in 1840, and partly to make purchases for his law library.

His home letters during this time show that he entered with zest into the usual round of sight-seeing—visited in London the law-courts, where

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he saw the great judges of the day on the bench ; and parliament, where he listened to Peel, Lord John Russell, Stanley, O'Connell and others. He visited Oxford and Cambridge, admired the splendour of Windsor Castle and travelled much through his native Scotland as well as through England. He returned at the end of a few months with renewed strength and eager to take up the laborious professional work which now constituted the ordinary round of his life.

In 1843 he took into partnership in his growing business his former student, Alexander Campbell, a connection which continued till 1849. He had already begun to take an interest in municipal affairs, and in 1843 was elected an alderman for the city of Kingston. In this position he is said to have displayed good business ability and to have made himself popular. But larger fields of public employment were about to open before him.

Meanwhile, his increasing prosperity had enabled him to assume the cares of domestic life. He was married on September 1st, 1843, to his cousin, Miss Isabella Clark, whose acquaintance he had made in Scotland.¹ Soon after their marriage Mrs. Macdonald became a confirmed invalid, and for many years constant anxiety about a wife to whom

¹ Two children were the offspring of this marriage ; the elder, John Alexander, was accidentally killed by a fall when quite young ; the second, Hugh John, has been well known to Canadians as member of parliament for the city of Winnipeg and premier of the province of Manitoba.

FIRST ELECTION

he was devoted went hand-in-hand with professional and political cares.

In the search for health Mrs. Macdonald was compelled to spend long periods in a warmer climate, and so was unable to take any considerable part in the public life of her husband, so much of which was passed away from home in prolonged attendance on his parliamentary duties. This lack of a continuous home life was one of the disabilities against which he had to struggle throughout his earlier political career.

It was in 1844, the year after his marriage, that his opportunity came for entering political life. In September of that year, Sir Charles Metcalfe, who had been for many months trying to carry on the government with a ministry which did not command a majority in the assembly, resolved to make an appeal to the country. This event had been expected for some time and the people of Kingston had prepared for it as early as the preceding June, when an address, signed by more than two hundred of the electors, was presented to Macdonald asking him to be a candidate for the representation of the town. As the time for the election approached, this requisition was endorsed at a large gathering of the Conservative party. A few days later Macdonald issued the first of his many addresses to a Canadian constituency. One paragraph of this address is worthy of special remark, since it strikes the keynote of his future

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political career. "I, therefore," he says, "need scarcely state my firm belief that the prosperity of Canada depends upon its permanent connection with the mother country, and that I shall resist to the utmost any attempt (from whatever quarter it may come), which may tend to weaken that union." Thus he enunciates at his very entrance into public life the central thought around which the political activities of nearly half a century were to revolve. When the polling day arrived he was elected by an overwhelming majority, and so became the member for Kingston, a constituency which, with one short break, he represented throughout his whole public career.

There is no indication that Macdonald was fired by any strong ambition or great political ardour in first seeking a seat in the legislature. When asked long after how he came to contest the election of 1844, he said, "To fill a gap. There seemed to be no one else available, so I was pitched upon."

Sir John Thompson, his colleague for several years, and later one of his successors in the premiership, mentions that he once consulted him about a friend's coming forward at an election when there was a prospect of his having to retire at the end of a single session, and that Macdonald in giving his approval added, "Those are the terms on which I came into public life."

The passionate devotion to politics which marked his later life was a plant of slow growth. An

COMPLEXITY OF CANADIAN POLITICS

increasing sense of public duty and the knowledge that he was necessary to his party, added to a consciousness of power to rule men, and of pleasure in the exercise of that power, were the forces which, contrary to his original intention, gradually led him on to devote his life entirely to the politics of his country. And assuredly no country ever had more need of the services of its best minds than had Canada at the time when Macdonald entered the legislature in 1844. This will be realized if we recall for a moment the number and complexity of the still unsettled problems with which the public men of the time were confronted. In the Canada of that day race was pitted against race, religion against religion. Men's minds were still inflamed by the wrongs, imaginary or real, which had produced the Rebellion of 1837, and by the passions kindled during its progress and suppression. The losses incurred during that rebellion had still in part to be dealt with, and when taken in hand for final settlement were destined to bring to a critical test the question of responsible government. The vexed and long-standing question of the Clergy Reserves embittered the public life of Upper Canada. Closely connected with this was the almost equally disputed issue of university endowment. Whether the Family Compact was the safeguard of British connection or a selfish combination working chiefly for personal ends, was a question fiercely debated on every hustings

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and at well-nigh every fireside. In Quebec, seigniorial tenure, a heritage from the feudal past, awaited some solution which would set the *habitant* free to enjoy the full fruits of his labour, while not inflicting an injustice on proprietors whose legal rights were undisputed. Representation according to population had not yet become a question between the two provinces, but the stream of immigration into Upper Canada, which was soon to make it a burning subject of dispute, had already begun to flow.

Behind all these large questions was one yet larger. British North America still consisted of a disjointed series of provinces; those on the Atlantic coast separated from old Canada by hundreds of miles of unbroken forests; the settlements of the Pacific still more effectually cut off from the central provinces by well-nigh two thousand miles of intervening prairie and mountains, only inhabited by the wandering Indian or the adventurous trapper. The physical isolation of the provinces was matched by the social and commercial isolation due to inadequate means of communication, separate postal systems, independent fiscal arrangements, and varying commercial laws.

Another condition, too, we are bound to note. The men who were to deal with these vast problems involving the future of half a continent had hitherto been provincial politicians, with views limited and passions concentrated by the narrow

COMPLEXITY OF CANADIAN POLITICS

circle in which they moved. Would their range of vision widen to meet the new needs of Canadian life? Would the provincial politician merge into the national statesman?

The career of Macdonald as a public man embraced nearly half a century. To the very end of that extended period the political development of Canada was sensibly influenced by events which had happened, conditions that existed and passions which had been aroused long antecedent to the time when he entered parliament. The business of a statesman is to make the most of the circumstances in which he is placed; to utilize to the advantage of the State the forces with which he has to deal. The skill and ability with which he builds up the fortunes of his country on what has been inherited from its past; the degree in which his powers respond to the new demands made upon them, establish his place on the page of history. To understand fully the tangled skein of Canadian politics which had to be unwound between 1844 and 1867 the reader must study, as he can do in earlier volumes of this series, the complicated train of events which occurred between the conquest in 1759 and the time when Macdonald's parliamentary career began.

But if we remember that, in the settlement of many of these vital questions to which reference has been made, Macdonald took a leading part; that in constructing the systems and framing the

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compromises which furnished their ultimate solution, his was the guiding hand; we shall understand the long and difficult road upon which the young legislator was entering when the people of Kingston first chose him as their representative; we shall be prepared to make allowance for many a mistake, as well as for those changes of policy or conviction which come from enlarged experience; and it will be difficult not to mark with admiration that gradual widening of power which enabled him to grapple successfully with the higher problems of statesmanship.

CHAPTER II

FIRST TEN YEARS OF POLITICAL LIFE

1844 to 1854

THE election which brought Macdonald into parliament was very distinctly connected with the struggle for the establishment of responsible government. The theory of that system, understood to have been recommended by Lord Durham, had, it was generally assumed, been accepted by the imperial government in framing the Union Act of 1840. But it proved more easy to have the principle of responsible government adopted in theory than fully carried out in practice. Even Lord Sydenham, who had been sent out to complete the work of union, found it difficult to believe that a governor-general could be responsible to the government at home and also to the legislature of the colony, but nevertheless he so far concealed his doubts as to gain credit at the time for being a true disciple of Lord Durham.

When Lord Sydenham was cut off by a premature death in September, 1841, he was succeeded by Sir Charles Bagot, under whose management progress was made in strengthening the power of the assembly. Recognizing the necessity of governing through men who enjoyed public

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confidence, he introduced the Reform leaders, Mr. Baldwin and Mr. LaFontaine, into the administration, though without formally placing its control in their hands. It was a serious blow to continuity of policy when Sir Charles Bagot was compelled by ill-health to resign the post of governor-general after having held it only one year. His successor, Sir Charles Metcalfe, was a man of high principle and patriotic purpose, but of less tact than his two predecessors. His ideas of government had been derived chiefly from service in tropical countries, where a large dependent population was to be kept under control. In both the East and West Indies he had filled important posts and had acquitted himself with great credit. But the training thus received was not the best preparation for the duties of a constitutional ruler, and still less for inaugurating a system professedly founded on new ideas in colonial administration. While admitting that his advisers should be taken from those who commanded the confidence of parliament, he strenuously resisted the claim of his advisers that the royal patronage in the matter of appointments to office should be regarded and used as an instrument for the advancement of party interests. The result was that the Reform members of the government which he found in power, headed by Mr. Robert Baldwin and Mr. LaFontaine, resigned in the autumn of 1843 in consequence of his having appointed a

SIR CHARLES METCALFE

certain person to a local office without their advice or consent. As the resigning ministers commanded an overwhelming majority in parliament, and as the governor-general remained fixed in his opinion that to accede to their demands would not only impair the dignity of the Crown, but lower the tone of public life, the constitutional difficulty seemed well-nigh insuperable.

The conflict which followed evoked the greatest bitterness of party feeling, and put a severe strain upon the whole system of government. The governor-general's first attempts to form a new administration failed, and for a short time he had the assistance of only a single minister, Mr. Dominick Daly. A little later he secured the powerful aid of Mr. (afterwards chief-justice) Draper, of Upper Canada, and that of Mr. Viger, representing Lower Canada. For some time the government was carried on by means of this skeleton of a regular cabinet. Meanwhile party passion was stirred to its depths throughout the country. Reformers denounced Sir Charles Metcalfe as a despot; the Conservative party acclaimed him as the upholder of the true balance of the constitution. Behind the diatribes, inspired mainly by party feeling, which pictured opponents of either side as unscrupulous or malignant, it is possible now in the cold light of history to recognize the sincerity of conviction in both parties to this great struggle. While the memories of rebellion were

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still fresh and its embers still smouldering—when men who had taken part in the late uprising continued to wield great popular influence, and while much doubt existed as to the motives or aims of the extreme men of the Reform party, it is little wonder that Conservatives as a whole looked to the representative of the Crown as the true safeguard of their most valued traditions, and so rallied to his support. There is a type of mind, and that not the least worthy of respect, which rates loyalty as high as liberty.

The iron of the American revolution, from which they or their fathers had suffered so much, rankled in the hearts of the United Empire Loyalists, and they dreaded, more than anything else, a repetition in their new country of what had taken place in the old colonies. On the other hand, the constitutional argument of the Reformers was sound and their ideal inspiring. In their ranks were men whose ability was combined with genuine sincerity of purpose. In the end they triumphed, but they would have triumphed more speedily had not the violence of followers thrown doubt upon the loyalty of their purpose. The one redeeming feature in this great struggle lay in the fact that it compelled the combatants to clearly think out their political principles.

For almost nine months Sir Charles Metcalfe carried on the government with the few ministers who were found willing to take office without

ENTERS PARLIAMENT

adequate support in the legislature. Then, in the autumn of 1844, having watched the development of opinion in Western Canada and judging the moment favourable, he determined to appeal to the people. After a bitterly contested struggle it was found when the smoke of battle had cleared away that, notwithstanding the almost solid opposition of the French-Canadians, the governor and his administration had been supported by a small majority.

The new parliament, of which Macdonald was now a member, met in Montreal on November 28th, 1844. Although Lord Metcalfe and his administration had been sustained in the election, the division of parties was so close in the first session that, even on critical questions, ministers only maintained themselves in power by a majority of six votes at the utmost, and often less. The principal parties themselves were divided into groups which rendered still more unstable this balance of power. Already could be seen approaching the shadow of that deadlock which was later to hasten the development of Canadian institutions. The atmosphere in which the young politician moved was one of the utmost uncertainty; one in which personal jealousies, racial prejudices and the clash of conflicting political theories combined to create a situation from which it was difficult to say what might emerge.

In reality it was a period of transition. Old conceptions of government were slowly dying—new

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ones were struggling towards birth. The imperial parliament, as has been said before, had recognized the theory of responsible government; yet the representatives of the Crown hesitated to give it full play. Subsequent events appear to indicate that this hesitation was a mistake, but there was much to excuse it. The memory of 1837, the year which saw treasonable utterances followed by treasonable acts, was still fresh in men's minds. It was kept fresh by the reckless expressions of extreme men in the Reform party by which doubt was cast upon the high aims of the leaders of the party, themselves loyal men, such as LaFontaine and Baldwin. The high-handed course, as many regarded it, of Sir Charles Metcalfe, in neglecting the advice of his constitutional advisers, and afterwards in governing the country by a ministry which did not possess the confidence of parliament, could only be justified on the ground of necessity; but the popular vote which followed his appeal to the people showed that a large section of the community, and of that portion of it particularly which was most interested in political problems as such, felt that arbitrary government was not the only danger that might threaten the State. It seemed that party, drawing everything to itself and using the patronage of the Crown for the solidifying of its power, might in the end prove a more conscienceless and far more costly tyranny than any that could reasonably be apprehended from a per-

THE DRAPER ADMINISTRATION

sonal governor. To many the real question of the hour appeared to be whether enough time had elapsed since the Rebellion of 1837 to justify the application in its fullest sense of the principle of responsible government.

Macdonald's election address, as already mentioned, lays special stress on the maintenance of the imperial connection. That it was threatened from different quarters, as he suggests, is evident from the records of the time. A small wing of the Reform party favoured annexation to the United States; another advocated an independent republic; a section of the French population remained irreconcilable in its objection to British rule. Under the circumstances we cannot wonder that, whatever principles of government were alleged to be at stake, there were those who made it their first duty to stand by the queen's representative.

The Conservative government which Macdonald had been elected to support was not only without a large majority in the legislature, but was not in itself strong. Its guiding spirit and ablest member, Mr. W. H. Draper, was in the Upper House. The ministers who had seats in the Lower House had not learned the necessity for united action and mutual support, and not infrequently were found opposing each other in debate and even in divisions. So great was the consequent party disorganization that Mr. Draper was finally compelled to resign

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his place in the council and seek a seat in the assembly, in order that he might exercise more effective leadership. Even there his task was scarcely less difficult. The French representatives of Lower Canada were combined with the Radicals of Upper Canada in opposition. One event of the session is noteworthy as illustrating the shifts to which parties were driven to maintain their position. The Union Act of 1840 provided that all the proceedings of the legislature should be printed in the English language only. This was felt to be a hardship by Lower Canadians, few of whom knew any language but French. In order to strengthen their French alliance, the Radicals of Upper Canada had planned to propose the removal of this restriction, counting upon getting the credit for the change if the motion were carried, or on having a cry against the government should it oppose the motion. In some way the Opposition plan leaked out, and ministers prepared with the utmost secrecy to cut the ground from under their feet by bringing in the proposal as a government measure. This they did, much to the surprise and chagrin of their opponents.

For three sessions the Draper government managed, though with frequent cabinet changes, to hold its own. During this time Lord Metcalfe, to give him the title bestowed upon him in 1845, had resigned, worn out by the terrible disease from which he had long suffered. He left Canada in

EARLY PARLIAMENTARY LIFE

November of that year, and was succeeded for a short period by Lord Cathcart, commander-in-chief of the forces in Canada.

For the first few sessions Macdonald took little part in the discussions of the legislature. "Scarcely five speeches in five sessions" was his own account of himself. It would seem that he had no inclination to take a leading part in the fierce political frays by which this period was distinguished, but preferred to feel his way towards some solid ground of political conduct. One who remembered him in those days describes him, amid the disputes going on around him, as "looking half careless and half contemptuous. Sometimes in the thick of the *mêlée* he was busy in and out of the library. I scarce ever remember then seeing him about the House that he was not searching up some case either then impending or to come up at a later date. He was for a great part of his time, too, buried in a study of constitutional history." His example of speaking little, but quietly making himself familiar with parliamentary forms and business, and establishing a position for himself by assiduous attention to the ordinary duties of a member, may well be recommended to young members fresh from the excitement of the hustings, and inclined to attach an exaggerated value to their own parliamentary utterances. How strong a position he was making for himself soon became apparent.

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At the close of the session of 1846 we find Mr. Draper advising the governor-general that reconstruction of the ministry is necessary, giving as a reason the lack of loyalty and steady support on the part of some of his most prominent colleagues during the previous sessions. In his difficulty he turns to Macdonald as one already able to assist him in an exceptional way and recommends him to the governor-general, Lord Cathcart, for office in the following terms:—

“In reference to the situation of commissioner of Crown lands, Mr. Draper humbly submits that a man of activity of mind, and familiar with business details, is imperatively required in the department. Mr. Draper would think a great advantage gained if Mr. J. A. Macdonald, the member for Kingston, would take the office.”

In his reply the governor-general says that he “has a very high opinion of Mr. J. A. Macdonald, and his appointment to office in the administration would afford him much satisfaction.” This correspondence took place in June, 1846, but circumstances intervened to prevent the immediate carrying out of the proposal thus made.

Soon after the arrival of Lord Elgin, early in 1847, Mr. Draper writes to urge the young member to come to Montreal in order that the new governor may hear “from others than executive councillors the state of parties,” and expressing complete confidence in his “judgment and dis-

FIRST CABINET POSITION

cretion.” It is extremely significant, and interesting also, to find that he looks to Macdonald’s presence to counteract in Lord Elgin “the feelings of distrust that mistaking ultra-Toryism for Conservatism (i.e. selfishness for patriotism) might give rise to.” The distinction here drawn seems to prove conclusively that neither Draper nor Macdonald, Conservatives though they certainly were, sympathized with the political creed of the so-called Family Compact. If further proof were needed it is found in a letter of May 6th, 1847, from the Hon. W. Morris, urging him not to refuse the office of receiver-general. Mr. Morris says, . . . “If you will not put your shoulder to the wheel, you assist those who, it may be, desire to regain power which you and I helped to deprive them of: I mean the ‘family.’”

The correspondence at this period indicates clearly that Macdonald was in no hurry to gain a place in the ministry, but only took office finally as a matter of public duty. He became receiver-general in May, 1847, and so began the official career which was destined to continue so long. In the general reconstruction of the government which took place at this time, Mr. Draper, who through these critical years had acted as its acknowledged head, accepted a judgeship and withdrew from public life. The great abilities and lofty character which had enabled him to conduct the affairs of the country through a peculiarly trying period, con-

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tinued to dignify his career upon the bench, where he attained and held until his death the position of chief-justice. The fact that such a man, not extreme in his Conservative views, devoted to the interests of his country and with the highest personal sense of honour, should have given steady support to Sir Charles Metcalfe through the stormy period of his rule, proves that the political arguments of the day were not all on one side, as certain writers have been disposed to represent them.

Mr. Henry Sherwood succeeded to the nominal leadership of the party, as a concession to its extreme Tory wing. The reconstructed ministry, known as the Sherwood-Daly government, had but a short life. Two critical questions chiefly absorbed its attention. The first was that of university endowment, then as keenly disputed a question as even that of the Clergy Reserves. Macdonald himself believed that the defeat of the government in the coming elections was certain unless this difficulty could be settled. Writing to Mr. Morris on May 9th, 1847, when accepting the office of receiver-general, he adds: "I suppose Mr. Draper will, whatever happens, remain in the ministry till the end of the session; and it appears to me that, with him in the House of Assembly, and yourself in the L. C., some disposition of the university question might be made, which would be satisfactory to the country, and at the same time remove a great stumbling block from our path. Many questions of more real

KING'S COLLEGE

importance may arise, but none which operates more strongly on the principles or prejudices of the public, and if the Conservatives hope to retain power, they must settle it before the general election."

His idea of a satisfactory settlement was then, as so often in later life with respect to other questions, conceived in a large spirit of compromise, and he succeeded in impressing his views upon his colleagues. The administration proposed to take over King's College, hitherto controlled entirely by the Church of England, and, in founding a university, to subsidize the Church of England college to the extent of £3,000 a year; and the Presbyterian College at Kingston, the Roman Catholic College at the same place and the Wesleyan College at Cobourg each with half that sum annually. This proposal was satisfactory to the Presbyterians, Roman Catholics and Methodists, and was at first accepted by Dr. Strachan, then at the head of King's College, as a reasonable compromise. Macdonald accordingly introduced a bill to give effect to the scheme, but at the last moment Dr. Strachan withdrew his consent and the bill was dropped. The position of the government was greatly weakened by this inability to carry out its own policy.

Macdonald always attributed to the obstinacy of Dr. Strachan the serious results for the Church of England, as well as for the government, which fol-

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lowed upon the failure of this measure. On the overthrow of the government and the accession to power of the Reform party under Mr. Baldwin and Mr. LaFontaine, King's College and its property were secularized, becoming the University of Toronto; and Dr. Strachan was compelled to raise with painful effort the means for founding a new Anglican university. That the University of Trinity College has fully justified its existence few will doubt, but it may fairly be questioned whether the Church would not have gained in power, without the sacrifice of principle, if it had accepted at this critical time the guidance of the practical politician rather than that of the unyielding cleric.

The spirit of reasonable compromise has now, after the lapse of more than half a century, prevailed, and the fact that the goal of a great university for Ontario with affiliated denominational colleges, has at length been reached, appears to prove the wisdom of Macdonald's policy in 1847.

In Lower Canada the outlook for the Conservative party was even worse. There the complicated question of compensation for losses incurred during the rebellion had become of paramount interest, and had made the French voters almost a unit in opposition to a ministry which was not prepared to meet their demands.

The result was that when the dissolution came in the last days of 1847, the government to which Macdonald belonged met with overwhelming de-

IN OPPOSITION

feat at the polls, though he himself secured his seat at Kingston. The Conservative party, shattered by its own divisions and without any leader with the capacity to organize and hold it together, went into opposition with an exceedingly dreary outlook. Several years were to elapse before the organizing ability and political genius of one of its youngest members were to give it new cohesion and new vitality.

Meanwhile, in opposition and associated with an unpopular party, he was to receive the discipline of patience, self-control and careful study of political principles and popular opinion, on which alone great parliamentary capacity and success can be established. Through the tedious years of party strife and intrigue which followed, Macdonald often thought of withdrawing from political life. A flood of light is thrown upon his attitude of mind by a letter written to him by his friend, Alexander Campbell, in March, 1855, and printed in Mr. Pope's memoirs of his chief. Speaking with all the intimacy of private friendship, Campbell says: "You will remember that throughout your long apparently hopeless opposition I always deprecated your retirement from parliament, as you often threatened to do. . . You were never so desponding as to prospects political as before and during the last canvass and election here. The disgusting electioneering arts you felt compelled to resort to, the defeat of many of your

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schemes as to candidates, the defection of some who promised to stand . . . the defeat at the polls of many others . . . all these influenced you . . . do you recollect? 'The party is nowhere—damned everlastingly. I will go down and get the Bank Bill passed and retire. I am resolved upon it.' And now you rule Canada; what a change!" Macdonald at this date held the position of attorney-general west in the government of Sir Allan MacNab, and was generally recognized as the most important man in the cabinet.

The Reform party came into power in February, 1848, with the support of every French constituency in Quebec and a smaller but sufficient majority from Upper Canada. With Mr. LaFontaine as leader from the Lower Province and Mr. Baldwin from the Upper, an administration was formed which continued in office for more than three years. That period proved a turning-point not only in Canadian, but in all colonial history. Four years before, under Lord Metcalfe, the two leaders had, as we have seen, resigned office on a question which they believed to involve the essential principle of responsible government. Now they returned to office, not merely with the endorsement of the popular vote but with a governor-general at the head of affairs who was bent upon giving their party a fair trial. Lord Elgin had come to his post with a fixed determination, the result of mature deliberation, to put into practice, with-

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

out reservation of any kind, the principle of responsible government, that is, to be guided in his administration of the country by the will of the people as expressed through a majority in the legislature. Before leaving England he had carefully discussed the whole question with the colonial secretary, Lord Grey, who had shown him the despatch sent to Sir John Harvey, then governor of Nova Scotia, in which the operation of the principle was clearly and exhaustively considered.¹

To Lord Elgin the empire owes a peculiar debt of gratitude for having finally established this great principle, which harmonizes colonial autonomy with an imperial system. But in accomplishing this task his resolution was subjected to a test under which the courage and endurance of a weaker man would have broken down. One of the first acts of the new administration was to bring in what was known as the Rebellion Losses Bill. To understand the situation created by the introduction of that bill the antecedent circumstances must be recalled.

The rebellion in both provinces had been put down in 1838; Lord Durham's report had been made in 1839; the Act of Union was put into effect on February 10th, 1841. Soon after the provinces were united, an Act had been passed to provide compensation "to certain loyal inhabitants who had suffered losses by the destruction of property at the hands of the rebels during the sup-

¹ See note on page 47.

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pression of the rebellion." This Act was at first only applied to losses incurred in Upper Canada, and the funds were supplied exclusively from Upper Canadian sources.

In Lower Canada the special council also made, by ordinance, partial provision for recompensing Loyalists for property destroyed by rebels. But under neither of these arrangements was provision made for compensating those whose property had been either purposely or incidentally destroyed by the authorities who were engaged in suppressing the rebellion. An Act, passed immediately after the union in 1841, extended the right of compensation to these cases, but only in Upper Canada. No move was made to deal with the claims in Lower Canada till February, 1845, when the assembly passed an address to the governor-general, Sir Charles Metcalfe, asking that means should be taken "in order to insure to the inhabitants of that part of the province formerly Lower Canada, indemnity for just losses during the rebellion of 1837 and 1838." Commissioners were accordingly appointed with instructions "to enquire into the losses sustained by Her Majesty's loyal subjects, in that part of the province of Canada which formerly constituted the province of Lower Canada, during the late unnatural rebellion. . . . and arising and growing out of the said rebellion." Distinction was here made between those who had aided the rebellion and those who had not. On applying for more par-

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ticular instructions from the governor-general as to the methods of making this distinction the commissioners were told that it was not His Excellency's intention that the commissioners should be guided by any other description of evidence than that furnished by the courts of law. The commission reported in 1846, presenting a list of 2,176 applicants for compensation who claimed £241,965 in all. The opinion was added that many of these claims were inadmissible, and that £100,000 would be sufficient to meet all that were reasonable. Many of the applications for extravagant compensation were made by persons deeply engaged in the rebellion. The Draper government which had appointed the commission, apparently to conciliate French feeling, took no action on this report, and the matter was allowed to drift. The opportunity thus given to their opponents to hold out the hope of compensation as a lure to the French voters of Lower Canada greatly contributed to the success of the Reform party in 1848. The new ministry was bound to realize the expectation of its followers, and so the famous Rebellion Losses Bill was duly presented to the legislature. The Act proposed to extend compensation to the Lower Province, and to all sufferers except persons actually convicted of high treason, or those who, on their own confession of rebellion, had been transported to Bermuda and consequently had no sentence standing against them. The great majority of the rebels had never

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been brought to trial; and so loyal men who had risked their lives and made the greatest sacrifices to crush the rebellion had now to face the possibility of paying to a large number of rebels what seemed to them a public reward for disloyalty. On the other hand the government, and later the governor-general, took the ground that the action of the Draper administration had made this further step inevitable. The proposal was fiercely debated in the legislature, and still more fiercely throughout the country. Macdonald took an active part in opposing the bill, denouncing it as shameful in principle, protesting against the introduction of so important a measure without full notice, and also against the unseemly haste with which it was pushed through the legislature without adequate explanation of the real intentions of the government. So vehement was the discussion, and so strongly personal the language used in debate, that Macdonald sent a hostile message to Solicitor-general Blake, for which he was promptly taken into custody by the sergeant-at-arms. Finally by a vote of forty-seven to eighteen the bill passed the Lower House, while in the legislative council the division stood twenty to eighteen.

All eyes were now turned upon the governor-general in whose power it was to assent to the bill, reserve it for the consideration of the imperial government, or, refusing assent, to dissolve parliament in order to secure a direct popular de-

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cision upon the question. Lord Elgin weighed these alternatives with the utmost care. About the actual merits of the bill he did not feel called upon to decide; indeed he is said to have described it as "a questionable measure." In his eyes the real issue was the constitutional one. Was a parliamentary majority to be recognized as expressing the will of the people?

An analysis of the vote showed that there was a majority in favour of the bill in both provinces, which, considering the constitution of the assembly and the solidarity of interest existing between the government and its supporters was not surprising. In Upper Canada out of thirty-one who voted on the third reading seventeen were for and fourteen against; in Lower Canada the French vote was a unit, which of itself gave a decisive majority, while of the ten members of British birth six voted for and four against the bill. A more conclusive test case in constitutional government cannot well be imagined. But people were not calmly considering the matter from a constitutional point of view. Even before the bill had been passed petitions had poured in from every side praying for its reservation or for a dissolution. Lord Elgin was convinced, rightly or wrongly, that there was not the slightest prospect of a new election changing the balance of parties. He thought it would be pusillanimous in himself to adopt the alternative course of reservation, since he would thus be throwing

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upon the imperial government a responsibility which it was his own business as governor-general to assume. So, after mature consideration, he came down to parliament and gave his consent to the bill. Everybody was aware that the political atmosphere was in a high state of tension, but no one foresaw the violence of the storm which now burst upon the head of the governor-general. His carriage was pelted as he left the parliament buildings; on the same night the buildings themselves, with the valuable records which they contained, were destroyed by fire—the work of an infuriated mob. The riots continued for several days, and much additional damage was done. The governor-general, though attacked and insulted a second time when he entered the city to receive an address of confidence and sympathy from the legislative body, resolutely declined military protection, declared that no drop of blood should be shed in giving him protection, and patiently awaited the justification of his course which time was to bring. The common sense of the people soon began to reassert itself, and addresses sent from many parts of the country showed Lord Elgin that he had the support of a large body of the electors. Responsible government had in a very real sense received its baptism of fire and stood the test.

Two or three significant results of this reprehensible and disastrous outbreak are to be recorded. In the first place Montreal ceased to be the seat

ANNEXATION MANIFESTO

of government. It was generally conceded that it would be wrong to subject the executive and parliament to further risk of being exposed to such outrages. Another troublesome question was thus introduced into the politics of the country. The keenest rivalry at once arose among the other Canadian cities to gain the place which Montreal had forfeited. Kingston had for over three years after the union been the capital, and Macdonald as its representative now made vigorous efforts to have the old dignity restored. The greater influence of Quebec and Toronto prevailed, but so keen was the struggle between these two centres that it was found necessary to divide the honour, and for sixteen years the sessions of parliament shifted at intervals of four years from one to the other. This inconvenient and costly arrangement which, however, may have had some indirect advantages in enlarging the views and diminishing the prejudices of the members of the legislature, lasted till the year 1865, when the seat of government was finally removed to Ottawa.

The excitement of the public mind outlasted the days of riot, and the tide of popular passion found outlets for itself in two widely different directions. A considerable number of the leading citizens of Montreal, influenced partly by what they considered the disastrous legislation lately passed—partly by the extreme commercial depression then prevailing throughout the country

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in consequence of England's adoption of a free trade policy, which deprived them of the preference in British markets to which they had been accustomed—issued a manifesto in which was advocated a friendly separation from the mother country and annexation to the United States. The men who signed this manifesto had mostly been the strictest Loyalists in the dark days of rebellion; many of them became in later life the vigorous champions of imperial connection; and so this famous document must be looked upon rather as an outbreak of petulance under provocation and excitement than as the serious purpose of men who had carefully thought out the situation. Strongly as Macdonald had felt in regard to the recent course of events, he refused to join in this annexation declaration, though pressed to do so, and though many of his political associates were concerned in it. On the other hand, a saner movement, which looked to constructive statesmanship as a remedy for the ills from which the country suffered, enlisted his entire sympathy. The British American League was formed in Montreal, and soon branches were established in many parts of the country. Permanent connection with the mother country, the union of all the North American colonies, protection to home industries, and economy in public expenditure were the chief features in the policy of the League, as the first three, at least, subsequently became

BRITISH AMERICAN LEAGUE

the distinctive aims of the great party which Macdonald led. The new association formed a safety valve for the effervescence of the time; discussion of public questions on a more rational basis went on; and it was not long before all thought of annexation, even in Montreal, had entirely died away.

The commissioners appointed under the Rebellion Losses Act carried out their work with strict moderation, and without recognizing the extravagant claims of those who had taken part in the rebellion. The government was severely blamed for not making its policy clear in this regard and not taking steps to guard against the threatened riot. Lord Elgin soon after made a tour through Upper Canada, and received many proofs that, however much the course of the government was criticized, the sober second judgment of the people endorsed the position which he had taken. It is of interest to note that when the subject of the Rebellion Losses Bill came up for consideration in the British parliament, the division of opinion was almost as striking there as in Canada itself. Lord Lyndhurst came down to the House of Lords at the close of his great career to denounce the bill as placing a premium upon disloyalty, and he was supported in this view by the fiery eloquence of Lord Brougham. The same attitude was taken in the House of Commons by Mr. Gladstone and other conspicuous

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members of parliament, but the government of the day, led by Lord John Russell, steadily supported the action of Lord Elgin and bestowed on him decisive marks of approval.

There is evidence that in this fierce conflict of opinion Macdonald acted as a moderating force. One of the many meetings to protest against the bill and against the action of the governor-general was held in his own constituency of Kingston. The resolutions passed and the speeches made on this occasion have been collected from the press reports of the time. The resolutions were strong; the speeches vehement and uncompromising. But it was only towards the close of the meeting that Macdonald, who had hitherto taken no part in the proceedings, came forward in response to a general demand for a speech. He said that he had been listening carefully to the discussion in order that, as their representative, he might hear the free expression of their opinion upon the state of the country rather than to prescribe any particular course to them. While expressing his general agreement with the terms of the resolutions and the sentiments of the speakers, he directed his remarks chiefly to an arraignment of the general policy of the government. If we remember that in later life he reckoned among the members of cabinets which served under him men who had taken a prominent part in the Rebellion of 1837, and at the same time men who had signed the

A RECONCILING FORCE

annexation manifesto of 1849, we can understand what his moderating and conciliating influence had yet to accomplish. In 1840 Lord Sydenham had written: "I am satisfied that the mass of the people are sound—moderate in their demands, and attached to British institutions—but they have been oppressed by a miserable little oligarchy on the one hand and excited by a few factious demagogues on the other. I can make a middle reforming party, I feel sure, which will put down both." What was a hope and an aspiration in Lord Sydenham, Macdonald was to translate into fact.

The remark that "Canada is a difficult country to govern" has often been attributed to him. His glory is that he made the task less difficult by peaceful means. France was a hard country to govern when Catholic and Huguenot faced each other—arms in hand—in almost every city and province, and met on many a battlefield. Blood flowed like water in those earlier days before solution was found for the troubles of the State. All honour to Macdonald, Cartier and the statesmen of Canada who, confronted with equal divergence of religious conviction, and equal vehemence of political passion, were yet able to reconcile the conflicting elements, and, without the shedding of blood, to make it possible for two races to live side by side in harmony, and for two forms of religious belief to be fair to one another.

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The Reform party had come into power in 1848 with an overwhelming majority, but as has often happened in parallel cases, lines of cleavage soon began to appear. In passing the Rebellion Losses Bill and in successfully asserting the theory of responsible government, the reforming energy of the leading spirits of the party had largely spent itself. Perhaps it would be more correct to say that the exercise of power had deepened in them the sense of responsibility. Certain it is that Mr. Baldwin and Mr. LaFontaine, taught moderation possibly by the violence of the agitation through which the country had passed, declined to push forward other measures which the more extreme followers of their party considered essential reforms. One more Act of importance, however, was passed in the session of 1849. Mr. Baldwin introduced a bill which abolished the faculty of theology in King's College, and by amending the charter created the University of Toronto as an institution of secular learning alone. Macdonald opposed this measure, and again brought forward, as an alternative solution of the question, his plan of 1847, which provided for the concurrent endowment of the denominational colleges. With the large majority behind him Mr. Baldwin had no difficulty in carrying his measure.

In 1850 the prosperity of the country, which had been greatly checked by the loss of a preference in British markets consequent on the adoption

RAILWAYS AND RECIPROCITY

of a free trade policy, began to revive. It was an era of railway building, and in this work the government assisted not without energy. In 1849 the negotiations had been begun which, after many years and many mishaps, ended in the construction of the Grand Trunk and finally the Intercolonial Railway. In 1851 a steamship service between Canada and Great Britain was subsidized. In 1854, largely through the tact of Lord Elgin, a treaty of reciprocity in natural products was entered into with the United States, and proved of great value to both countries. By this treaty questions which afterwards became dominating factors in Canadian politics were held in abeyance for several years.

But while Canada revived and was in great measure transformed by these improvements, the political difficulties of the government increased daily. Two important sections of their followers split off. The breath of the revolution of 1848 had blown upon Lower Canada, and a band of brilliant young men, led by Antoine Dorion, clustered around the veteran Papineau in a desperate conflict against the almost unlimited political domination of the priesthood. In the policy of this *Parti Rouge*, as they came to be known, there was much that was noble, and not a little that was chimerical. The story of their endeavours is told at length in Mr. Willison's *Life of Sir Wilfrid Laurier*. It is enough to say here that those who survived came out of the battle shorn of all that was

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chimerical, and perhaps something of what was noble.

In Upper Canada the same struggle against clerical influence had much to do with creating what became known as the Clear Grit party. The early platform of this party was in part directed to reasonable reforms—in part to what was almost revolutionary. While it embodied much justified resistance to privilege, the movement in Ontario soon assumed a religious and racial aspect which aroused the keenest animosities. The opponents of the Clear Grits were soon able to fasten on them the epithets of “anti-Catholic” and “anti-French.” On the one hand this prevented them from full fraternization with the *Rouges* of Quebec; on the other, even the modified alliance which was maintained handicapped still more seriously Dorion and his followers, by enabling the clericals to accuse them of hostility not only to their religion but to the liberties and privileges of their native province.

But it was not merely by internal divisions that the Reform party was weakened. Early in 1851 Mr. Baldwin resigned, nominally in consequence of a vote of the Ontario members in the legislature favouring the abolition of the Court of Chancery which he had established; really, in all probability, because he found himself out of sympathy with a large section of his party. Later in the year Mr. LaFontaine accepted a seat on the

HINCKS-MORIN ADMINISTRATION

bench. They had achieved the great constitutional ends for which they had laboured. They could no longer satisfy their extreme followers. They perhaps did not feel themselves the men to carry out the policy of railway construction which was becoming necessary. The Liberal government was therefore reorganized towards the close of the year 1851, under Mr. (afterwards Sir Francis) Hincks, an able and eminently practical financier, and Mr. A. N. Morin, and became known as the Hincks-Morin administration. But Morin refused to conciliate the *Rouges* and Hincks proved too moderate for the Grits. Amid ever-increasing difficulties they struggled on till September, 1854, when they were defeated on a technicality and resigned. The real cause of their downfall was the question, at once religious and political, of the Clergy Reserves. The history of this question, of the men and circumstances which forced it to the front, and of its solution must be dealt with in a separate chapter.

NOTE—See page 33.

It is well to remember that it was not in Canada or by Canadians alone that the principles of responsible government were in those critical days being thought out. Never perhaps have they been more accurately stated than in the despatch here referred to.

Sir John Harvey had asked for definite direction at a constitutional crisis when vacancies in a weak executive council were to be filled up. Lord Grey's reply, under date November 3rd, 1846, shows the clear guidance that came from Downing Street itself to support those working for true responsible government. He says:—

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“I am of opinion that under all the circumstances of the case, the best course for you to adopt is to call upon the members of your present executive council to propose to you the names of the gentlemen whom they would recommend to supply the vacancies which I understand to exist in the present board. If they should be successful in submitting to you an arrangement to which no valid objection arises, you will of course continue to carry on the government through them, so long as it may be possible to do so satisfactorily, and as they possess the necessary support from the legislature. Should the present council fail in proposing to you an arrangement which it would be proper for you to accept, it would then be your natural course, in conformity with the practice in analogous cases in this country, to apply to the opposite party; and should you be able, through their assistance, to form a satisfactory council, there will be no impropriety in dissolving the assembly upon their advice; such a measure, under those circumstances, being the only mode of escaping from the difficulty, which would otherwise exist, of carrying on the government of the province upon the principles of the constitution. The object with which I recommend to you this course, is that of making it apparent that any transfer which may take place of political power from the hands of one party in the province to those of another, is the result, not of an act of yours, but of the wishes of the people themselves, as shown by the difficulty experienced by the retiring party in carrying on the government of the province according to the forms of the constitution. To this I attach great importance; I have therefore to instruct you to abstain from changing your executive council until it shall become perfectly clear that they are unable, with such fair support from yourself as they have a right to expect, to carry on the government of the province satisfactorily, and command the confidence of the legislature.

“Of whatever party your council may be composed, it will be your duty to act strictly upon the principle you have yourself laid down in the memorandum delivered to the gentlemen with whom you have communicated,—that, namely, of not identifying yourself with any party but, instead of this, making yourself both a mediator and a moderator between the influential of all parties.

“In giving, therefore, all fair and proper support to your council for the time being, you will carefully avoid any acts which can possibly be supposed to imply the slightest personal objection to their opponents, and also refuse to assent to any measures which may be

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proposed to you by your council which may appear to you to involve an improper exercise of the authority of the Crown for party rather than for public objects. In exercising, however, this power of refusing to sanction measures which may be submitted to you by your council, you must recollect that this power of opposing a check upon extreme measures proposed by the party for the time in the government, depends entirely for its efficacy upon its being used sparingly and with the greatest possible discretion. A refusal to accept advice tendered to you by your council is a legitimate ground for its members to tender you their resignation,—a course they would doubtless adopt should they feel that the subject on which a difference had arisen between you and themselves was one upon which public opinion would be in their favour. Should it prove to be so, concession to their views must sooner or later become inevitable, since it cannot be too distinctly acknowledged that it is neither possible nor desirable to carry on the government of any of the British provinces in North America in opposition to the opinion of the inhabitants.

“Clearly understanding, therefore, that refusing to accede to the advice of your council for the time being, upon a point upon which they consider it their duty to insist, must lead to the question at issue being brought ultimately under the decision of public opinion, you will carefully avoid allowing any matter not of very grave concern, or upon which you cannot reasonably calculate upon being in the end supported by that opinion, to be made a subject of such a difference. And if, unfortunately, such a difference should arise, you will take equal care that its cause and the grounds of your own decision are made clearly to appear in written documents capable of being publicly quoted.

“The adoption of this principle of action by no means involves the necessity of a blind obedience to the wishes and opinions of the members of your council; on the contrary, I have no doubt that, if they see clearly that your conduct is guided, not by personal favour to any particular men or party, but by a sincere desire to promote the public good, your objections to any measures proposed will have great weight with the council, or, should they prove unreasonable, with the assembly, or, in last resort, with the public.

“Such are the general principles upon which the constitution granted to the North American colonies render it necessary that their government should be conducted. It is, however, I am well aware, far easier to lay down these general principles than to determine in any

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particular case what is that line of conduct which an adherence to them should prescribe. In this, your own judgment and a careful consideration of the circumstances in which you are placed must be your guide ; and I have only, in conclusion, to assure you that Her Majesty will always be anxious to put the most favourable construction upon your conduct, in the discharge of the arduous duties imposed upon you by the high situation you hold in her service."

CHAPTER III

THE CLERGY RESERVES AND SEIGNIORIAL TENURE

THE COALITION OF 1854

THE vote which led the Hincks-Morin government to resign in September, 1854, stood sixty-one to forty-six, but a closer analysis of the composition of the legislature showed that, of one hundred and thirty members, the defeated cabinet could claim fifty-five, the Conservative opposition forty, the Clear Grits and *Rouges* combined thirty-five.

While the government had been defeated, neither of the parties which had brought about the defeat was able to take its place. Coalition in some form was manifestly a necessity, if the queen's government was to be carried on. But coalition means compromise, and to some of the parties to the struggle anything like compromise presented almost insuperable difficulties. It might almost be said that the political situation at this time was dominated by the temperament of two men, Macdonald and George Brown. The latter had gradually come to be regarded as Macdonald's great antagonist in the public life of Canada. His figure is one of the largest in Canadian history. In Cana-

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dian politics his influence was for a long time only second, if second, to that of Macdonald himself. As a force in creating the public opinion on which reforms are based, he has strong claims to be reckoned in the first place. Like Macdonald, he was of Scottish birth. He was twenty-six years of age when, in 1844, the same year in which Macdonald entered parliament, he came to Canada, where soon after with his father he founded the *Globe* newspaper, with which his name will always be associated. The immense influence which George Brown long wielded in Upper Canada was won primarily as a journalist. Later he became a force in the legislature, though his parliamentary career was somewhat broken and erratic, partly through electoral defeats, partly through the difficulty he had in working with other men.

A man of intense convictions, a trenchant political writer, a vehement and powerful, though rather ungraceful, speaker, a thoroughly loyal British subject and a man devoted to the highest interests of his adopted country, his influence and success were somewhat marred by a domineering spirit and an uncompromising disposition which made little allowance for the opinions, the prejudices or the foibles of those with whom he had to deal. The real goodness of his heart and the earnestness of his purpose scarcely atoned at times for the bitterness of his polemics, which accentuated animosities and even alienated friends. As the vehement opponent

GEORGE BROWN

of privilege and the untiring advocate of reform his record is unique in Canadian politics. He was deficient, however, in some of the qualities essential to a great leader of men.

The art of popular government has ever rested in a spirit of compromise, and never was this spirit more necessary than in the transition period of Canadian history. But compromise was a word not found in George Brown's vocabulary. He strained a principle to the breaking point—to a point where enemies were embittered and friends alienated. The note of personal antagonism and conflicting ambitions which marked the relations of the two men was largely the outcome of character. Brown's judgment was frequently warped by passion—while Macdonald was usually able to subject personal feeling to policy. Brown would have characterized Macdonald's compromising disposition as lack of fixed principle; while Macdonald no doubt considered that Brown's vehement and violent methods indicated lack of that common sense and knowledge of human nature necessary to successful statesmanship. There is a world of illumination thrown upon the history of the two men by the fact that of Macdonald's principal opponents at various stages of his career the majority became, sooner or later, his colleagues or supporters; that sooner or later George Brown found himself in opposition to most of those with whom he had at some time coöperated. Both men were patriots of

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whom Canada may be proud, and both were necessary to the country: the one to initiate and urge forward reforms, the other to reconcile opposing forces so as to make reforms possible in legislation. In the long political contest between them Macdonald won. In one of his poems Sir Walter Scott describes a conflict between a Lowland prince of trained skill and a Highland chieftain of blind but unflinching courage, ending in the victory of the former. In the rivalry between Macdonald and Brown these conditions were reversed. The skilful, adroit and restrained Highlander, with every faculty under control, proved more than a match for the furious onset of the Lowlander, armed though the latter usually was with a good cause and good intentions.

When the Clear Grit party first began to look upon itself and be regarded by others as a distinct political group, it met with George Brown's opposition. But as the reforming energy of the Liberal administration abated, Brown's impatience with his old friends gradually became more pronounced, and soon he was not merely opposing the Liberal leaders more vehemently than the Conservatives themselves, but was steadily moving towards the leadership of the Clear Grit party. Convinced that French and Roman Catholic influence was the cause of the government's hesitation, he proceeded to denounce with the utmost vehemence and in the most sweeping terms the racial ideals and the

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religious system of the people of Quebec. In a country inhabited by two races enjoying equal rights and entitled to equal freedom of opinion, such a course would be a mistake at any time. From the point of view of a man aspiring to political leadership in Canada, the mistake at the moment was fatal. The full strength of the Liberal party in both provinces was needed to form a government which could command a majority in the House; and Brown had made it practically impossible for any French-Canadian party to work with him, or for French members to support him without endangering their own seats in parliament.

Thus it was that when, largely through his untiring energy and fixed resolution, the question of the Clergy Reserves had been brought in Upper Canada to the verge of settlement, others than he were called in to complete the business. That question had long vexed Canadian politics; it had run like a thread through every electoral struggle since Macdonald had entered parliament and George Brown had started on his journalistic career; and the consideration of its nature and history, delayed so far for the sake of greater unity of treatment, must now be briefly dealt with before proceeding to the solution which finally removed it from the sphere of party conflict.

By a clause in the Act of 1791 which constituted the two provinces of Upper and Lower

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Canada it was provided that, in granting allotments to settlers, other lands "equal in value to the seventh part of the lands so granted should be set apart for the support of a 'Protestant Clergy.'" This legislation, intended to give assurance that religious and moral training should go hand in hand with material development, seemed a singularly propitious start for a new country, but it proved in the end the most fruitful source of political strife that the colony had ever known. The Reserves were claimed at first for the exclusive use of the Anglican Church, and for a time this claim was not questioned. But the Church of Scotland began, in 1822, to assert its right to a proportion of the endowment, on the ground that it was recognized in the Act of Union between England and Scotland as an Established Protestant Church. Other denominations claimed at a later period that they too should have a share, arguing that the intention of the Act was only to exclude the clergy of the Roman Catholic Church from the benefit of the endowment. The acrimony of the dispute was increased by the fact that these reserved lands, scattered through every township, and remaining for the most part uncleared, untilled and untaxed, had grown to be one of the greatest drawbacks to the progress of settlement and the general improvement of the country.

No doubt the clauses of the Constitutional Act creating the Clergy Reserves had been framed and

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enacted with the most praiseworthy motives. The desire to make religious training a part of education has been a compelling influence amongst almost all Christian bodies in the later as well as the earlier history of Canada. The strenuous and self-sacrificing efforts made by Roman Catholics, Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians and other Christian organizations to establish institutions where religious training is duly recognized furnish convincing evidence that the purpose of the framers of this Act has its counterpart in many bodies outside the Anglican Church. Nor was the early interpretation put upon it without plausible justification. To men accustomed to the overshadowing influence of the Established Church in England, as were the framers of the Act, it must have seemed a perfectly natural thing to associate the religious training which they wished to secure with the teaching of that Church alone, and to aim at the organization of a parochial system such as that which existed in the motherland. But they had overlooked the new conditions which were sure to arise in a new country. Although the majority of the earlier English settlers and practically the whole body of officials belonged to the Anglican communion, at no time was there any formal recognition in Upper Canada of an Established Church.

The subsequent flow of immigration tended to diminish rapidly the proportion to the whole popu-

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lation of the Anglican body. The Irish famine added greatly to the Roman Catholic population of Canada. The large majority of Scottish immigrants were Presbyterian. The greater number of those who came from the United States belonged to non-Episcopal denominations. In many ways the enthusiasm and popular methods of other religious bodies appeal more strongly to a rural population than the severe and dignified ritual of the Church of England. These and other causes tended to a large increase in the proportion of the population which was out of sympathy with the Anglican communion and unwilling that it should hold a privileged position among other religious bodies. Such a position the Act creating the Clergy Reserves, coupled with the interpretation put upon it, certainly gave to the Anglican Church. Hence, the bitter struggle which followed was prolonged through almost an entire generation. This contest formed part of the broader struggle for responsible government. It was the source of angry conflict in the legislature for many years before the union and for many years afterwards, it perplexed the policy of successive administrations and furnished the chief subject of contention in several general elections.

As early as 1817 the attention of the legislature was drawn to the abuse which was being created by the operation of the Act. It was in 1819 that the law officers of the Crown gave their opinion

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in favour of the Presbyterian claims. The agitation increased from that time forward, the Church of England, under the leadership of the exceedingly able but uncompromising Dr. Strachan, afterwards first Bishop of Toronto, stoutly resisting all attempts to infringe what were considered its legal and exclusive rights. Fuel was added to the fire of discussion in 1836, when Sir John Colborne, just as he was resigning his post as lieutenant-governor, acting on the recommendation of the executive council, created and endowed forty-four rectories, giving to them, as an endowment, lands which in the aggregate amounted to more than seventeen thousand acres. A storm of protest followed, and helped to swell the complaints which formed the pretext for the uprising of 1837. When the rebellion had been put down and Mr. Poulett Thomson (Lord Sydenham) was sent to Canada in October, 1839, to prepare the country for the union soon to follow, the settlement of the question seemed to him so essential to future harmony that, by extraordinary exertions and the exercise of infinite tact, he secured the passage by the assembly, in January, 1840, of an Act providing that the Reserves should be sold, and the proceeds distributed in certain proportions among the various religious denominations recognized by law. This Act was vehemently opposed by Dr. Strachan and his friends; it was far from satisfying popular opinion in Canada; on being sent to

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England it was, on technical grounds, disallowed by the judges, who considered that certain of its provisions exceeded the powers of the legislature.

The imperial parliament, recognizing the necessity for dealing promptly with the question, passed an Act in the same year providing that no further reservations should be made; that of the proceeds of previous sales two-thirds should go to the Church of England and one-third to the Church of Scotland; that in the case of future sales the Church of England should have a third, the Church of Scotland a sixth, the remainder to be applied by the governor, with the advice of his council, "for purposes of public worship and religious instruction in Canada," a phrase intended to recognize the claims of other religious denominations. For a few years after the union this decision, although by many considered inequitable, remained undisturbed. Then the entire secularization of the Reserves became a plank in the platform of the Reform party. When a Reform government came into power in 1848 their most zealous supporters hoped that immediate action would be taken to carry out secularization. But, as has been said before, neither Mr. Baldwin nor Mr. LaFontaine was eager for this, and both rather deprecated the opening of the question. Besides, the legislature could not move till the Imperial Act of 1840 had been repealed. The hesitation of the ministry in asking for this repeal, the doubts about the

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justice of secularization entertained by both Mr. Baldwin and Mr. LaFontaine, irritated the Clear Grits and hastened the break-up of the Reform party.

George Brown did his utmost in the election of 1854 to defeat the regular Liberal candidates, with the result already mentioned—the overthrow of the Hincks-Morin ministry—by the joint votes of Conservatives and Clear Grits, the name now given to Brown's followers. Sir Allan MacNab, the leader of the Conservative opposition, was called upon to form an administration. It was a difficult position in which he found himself placed. The election had made plain the wishes of a majority of the electorate, and, if he took office at all, it must be to carry out measures which he had steadily opposed, and in coalition with men who had been his bitter opponents. But a final settlement of the chief question at issue was a supreme necessity in the interests of the country, drifting as it was under the renewed agitation towards political anarchy. Any doubts that Sir Allan entertained were swept away by the decisive judgment of the young lieutenant, who was already beginning to be looked upon as the virtual leader of the Conservative party.

Macdonald's keen political sagacity enabled him to recognize in the relation of parties an opportunity for which he had long been watching and

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planning. Never from the first had he been entirely in sympathy with the extreme Tory party with which he had been associated. He saw that some of the old party lines must be abandoned. It is true the Conservatives had always favoured the view of the Church of England in the matter of the Clergy Reserves; but successive elections had now made it clear that the people were bent on secularization, and that no administration could be formed, with any hope of stability, which did not place this upon its programme. Seigniorial tenure stood in the same position in Quebec. Macdonald determined to bow to the popular will, and to educate his party to follow him in doing this. He saw that there might be established a real bond of union, as there was a real unity of purpose, between the less rigid wing of the Conservative party and the more moderate advocates of reform in Upper Canada. He had taken trouble to ingratiate himself with the French members, to whom his buoyant disposition, his keen sense of humour, his courtesy and the gaiety of manner and speech under which he often concealed his deeper purposes, presented an attractive contrast to the grimly earnest temperament of the Clear Grit leader. There was evidently no insuperable antagonism between the Upper Canadian Conservatives and the more moderate of the French-Canadian Liberals; indeed in many respects they were natural allies.

THE LIBERAL-CONSERVATIVE PARTY

It was apparently at this time that the goal towards which he was working became clear to Macdonald. Already his imagination had conceived the great Liberal-Conservative party which was afterwards to prove in his skilful hands such a potent instrument in lifting Canada to a new level of national life. The idea was still in embryo, but even in 1854 it had enough of vitality to break down long-standing hostilities and bring men together to work for the common good.

The coalition known as the MacNab-Morin administration contained six members of the previous Liberal government, with an addition of four Conservatives. Macdonald's own post was that of attorney-general for Upper Canada. This ministry has always been regarded as the offspring of his constructive ability. It applied itself at once and vigorously to the task to which it was committed. The programme submitted to the legislature embraced measures for the secularization of the Clergy Reserves, and for dealing with the seigniorial tenure. What the Conservative party would never have done of itself, what the Reform party had never dared to attempt, the new administration promptly carried out.

Loud and bitter was the outcry of Tory veterans of many a hard fought field when they saw the surrender of the central citadel around which their past conflicts had been waged. Louder still and still more dread were the denunciations hurled against

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what they called the "Unholy Alliance" by those who had themselves expected to give the finishing blow to those ancient grievances that had so long furnished the staple of political agitation.

But moderate men on all sides recognized the necessity for the coalition. From his retirement the great Reform leader, Robert Baldwin, wrote to express his formal approval. "However disinclined myself," he said, "to adventure on such combinations, they are unquestionably, in my opinion, under certain circumstances, not only justifiable but expedient, and even necessary. The government of the country *must* be carried on. It *ought* to be carried on with vigour. If that can be done in no other way than by mutual concessions and a coalition of parties, they become necessary. And those who, under such circumstances, assume the arduous duties of being parties to them, so far from deserving the opprobrium that is too frequently and often too successfully heaped upon them, have, in my opinion, the strongest claims upon public sympathy and support."

Mr. Hincks, the defeated premier, promised and gave his assistance. Even Mr. Dorion, the *Rouge* leader, considered the union between the Conservatives and Mr. Morin's wing of the Liberal party a natural one. The members who had accepted office in the ministry were all reëlected on going back to their constituents; and thus the seal of

CLERGY RESERVES ABOLISHED

popular approval was in a measure put upon the policy of coalition.

Macdonald himself introduced the bill for the secularization of the Clergy Reserves on October 17th, 1854; on November 23rd it passed the assembly by a vote of sixty-two to thirty-nine; on December 10th the legislative council agreed to it without amendment; and thus in a few short weeks the coalition rid the country forever of a question which for many years had been a fruitful source of strife. In this final settlement due regard was paid to those vested interests to which the faith of the Crown was pledged. Provision was made for the payment during the lives of existing incumbents of those stipends or allowances which had been charged upon the Reserves. The government was empowered to commute these stipends for their money value on an equitable basis, though only with the consent of the incumbents themselves, the money so paid being capitalized and invested for the good of the church concerned. In cases like those of the Wesleyan and Roman Catholic bodies, where annual grants had been made in a block sum without reference to individual incumbents, it was provided that the payments should be continued for a term of twenty years. When all these first charges on the fund had been paid, the residue was to be divided among the city and county municipalities

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in proportion to their population, and applied to ordinary municipal purposes.

While these terms of settlement were doubtless better than would have been granted at less sympathetic hands, the clergy, and especially those of the Anglican Church, who were most largely concerned, lost heavily in comparison with their legal claims. Yet even by them this settlement was accepted as final, and in a spirit which justified the high compliment paid to them by Macdonald in a public speech a few years later. "To the credit of the churches concerned, and of their clergy, be it said, that, great as was their loss, and enormous their sacrifice—for they had a claim on the full half of the proceeds—they acquiesced in the settlement we proposed, because they felt that they ought not to be the cause of strife, and would not be placed in a false position, and have it said that they looked more after temporal than spiritual things. Though the pittances paid were small, I am happy to have personally received assurances from the clergy of these churches—from their bishops downward—that they are glad our legislation succeeded."

While the Clergy Reserves were being dealt with, another Act finally settling the question of seigniorial tenure was being pushed through the legislature. This grievance was an inheritance from the old French *régime*, under which an effort was made to introduce into the New World the feudal

SEIGNIORIAL TENURE ABOLISHED

system of France in the Middle Ages. Large blocks of territory were granted to seigniors or superior vassals by the Crown on a tenure of "faith and homage," together with other conditions, among which was an obligation to clear the land within a limited time on pain of forfeiture. The seigniors subdivided their land among the peasants or *habitants*, who in turn were subject to various feudal imposts and dues. The exaction of these dues and of various feudal obligations connected with this system of land tenure had gradually become exceedingly vexatious, and furnished much ground for discontent in Lower Canada. In the settlement now made the radical method of cure, by confiscation, was avoided, and regard was had for those vested rights which the seigniors had acquired by original grant and by the lapse of time. Commissioners were appointed to enquire into and fix the value of these rights; a tribunal was provided to which doubtful questions could be referred, and a commutation fund was set apart for the indemnification of the seigniors. But all feudal rights and duties in Lower Canada were finally abolished, and when the commissioners finished their work five years later, and the necessary money to close the accounts for payment was voted, this remnant of the mediæval system of France, which had been so fruitful a source of agitation and discontent, disappeared from the field of Canadian politics. At a few points along the St. Lawrence

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certain harmless survivals of seigniorial ownership still remain to add picturesqueness to the conditions of life, but they no longer furnish grounds for irritation.

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CHAPTER IV

DEADLOCK

1854 to 1864

ALTHOUGH covering a period of rapid growth, the ten years between 1854 and 1864 are, in their political aspect, among the least satisfactory in Canadian annals. It is worth pondering that in an age often accused of materialism, popular enthusiasm and a spirit of self-sacrifice are much more easily aroused over religious and constitutional questions, which affect no man's pocket but touch his convictions or sentiment, than over the prosaic details of administrative honesty and economy. With the achievement of responsible government, the secularization of the Clergy Reserves and of the University of Toronto, and the abolition of seigniorial tenure, a group of great questions passed into the background, and not for some time did new problems of equal magnitude definitely present themselves. The question of railway construction, probably the most important before the House during these years, remained in the realm of commerce, and did not rise to that vital connection with the national ideal and the national aspiration reached in later years by the construc-

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tion of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The consequence was a distinct lowering in the tone of political life, and in the political methods considered lawful or at least pardonable; a lowering of tone which did not pass away till great constitutional questions again presented themselves.

During these years of party bickering and intrigue the difficulties inherent in the legislative union of 1841 were gradually demonstrated. Brown, Macdonald and other Canadian statesmen were brought face to face with this inadequacy, and forced to search for a remedy. The problem in large measure arose from the short-sighted attempt of the framers of the Act of Union to subject the French to the English-speaking population. In 1837 the inhabitants of Lower Canada had numbered six hundred thousand as compared with four hundred thousand in the Upper Province, yet each had been assigned an equal number of members in the united legislature. Though this injustice roused deep anger among the French, by 1854 they had found that, by holding themselves together as a solid phalanx, they were able, through the divisions among the English, to obtain an equal, if not a preponderating, influence. In the end the constitutional provision contrived for their subjection proved to their advantage. Owing to emigration the population of the Upper Province increased so rapidly that in 1852 it was

REPRESENTATION BY POPULATION

sixty thousand larger than that of Lower Canada, and in 1861 almost three hundred thousand, a result which the prescience of Lord Durham had foreseen. "I am averse," he had written in his famous report, "to every plan that has been proposed for giving an equal number of members to the two provinces, in order to attain the temporary end of outnumbering the French, because I think the same object will be attained without any violation of the principles of representation and without any such appearance of injustice in the scheme as would set public opinion, both in England and America, strongly against it; and because, when emigration shall have increased the English population in the Upper Province, the adoption of such a principle would operate to defeat the very purpose it is intended to serve. It appears to me that any such electoral arrangement founded on the present provincial divisions, would tend to defeat the purposes of union, and perpetuate the idea of disunion."

The increasing discrepancy allowed George Brown to fan the flame of racial and religious antagonism, and it was not long before he controlled a majority of the constituencies in Ontario. His solution of the difficulty was that proposed by Lord Durham, and adopted in 1848 by Papineau, of ignoring the division into Upper and Lower Canada and dividing the members among the constituencies of the united province "as near

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as may be in accordance with population." Against this the French-Canadians urged that the union of 1841 amounted to a compact; that the essence of the understanding was that the two provinces should be on a legislative equality; that without such protection one province might become entirely dominant over the other; and that in any case the complaint came with an ill grace from the province which had welcomed this very legislative equality as offering their best security against French domination. Their leaders were not slow to realize the strength of their position. "*Nous avons l'avantage; profitons-en,*" said Mr. T. J. Loranger to his constituents, while Mr. Cartier calmly told the House that the extra sixty thousand Upper Canadians had no more right to be counted than so many codfish in the Bay of Gaspé.

On Macdonald the influence of this period was both for good and for evil. It increased in him that laxity of political methods noted by Sir Alexander Campbell; it led him to think "fighting fire with fire" a venial political sin; but it also brought out to the full his marvellous adroitness, his power of managing men and shaping coalitions. The skill with which he guided the tangled negotiations from 1864 to 1867 was won in the conflict of the previous ten years. When he said, as he frequently did in later life, that his greatest triumphs were achieved before Con-

A PARLIAMENTARY POWER

federation, he must have been thinking of the days when, with George Brown dominant in Ontario and Cartier supreme in Quebec, he was yet the most prominent and the most powerful man in the House. Mr. Pope has well described his appearance at this epoch:—

“Without pretension to oratory in the strict sense of the word, the intimate knowledge of public affairs, joined to the keen powers of argument, humour and sarcasm, the ready wit, the wealth of illustration and brilliant repartee, gave to his speeches, set off as they were by a striking presence and singularly persuasive style, a potency which was well-nigh irresistible. Those of us who knew Sir John Macdonald only when his voice had grown weak, his figure become stooped, his hair thin and grey and his face seamed with lines of anxious care, and remember the power which under these disadvantages of age he exercised over the minds and hearts of men, can well understand how it came to pass that, in the days of his physical prime, he inspired, not merely his followers with a devotion which is almost without parallel in political annals, but drew to his side first one and then another of his opponents, until he could truly say at the end of his days that he had the proud satisfaction of knowing that almost every leading man who had begun political life as his opponent ended by being his colleague and friend.”

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To show how with all his brilliancy, his adroitness, his sometimes excessive fertility of resource, he was gradually forced to acknowledge the union of 1841 unworkable, is the object of this chapter.

The political events of these years, which in some ways read like a series of secondary and disconnected incidents, nevertheless compelled public men to look beyond party intrigue for some firm foundation of constitutional principle.

In January, 1855, Mr. Morin accepted a seat upon the bench. A reconstruction of the cabinet followed.¹ Mr. Morin's place was taken by Colonel (afterwards Sir E. P.) Taché, an honest and dignified country gentleman, chiefly remembered to-day as the author of the saying that "if ever this ceases to be a British country, the last shot in the maintenance of British rule in America will be fired by a French-Canadian." Though Colonel Taché had been in the cabinet since 1848, his heart was never wholly given to politics, and hence it was all the more easy for Macdonald, who held the

¹ The MacNab-Taché ministry was constituted as follows: The Hon. Sir A. N. MacNab, president of the council and minister of agriculture (first minister); the Hon. W. Cayley, inspector-general; the Hon. Robert Spence, postmaster-general; the Hon. Joseph Cauchon, commissioner of Crown lands; the Hon. François Lemieux, chief commissioner of public works; the Hon. G. E. Cartier, provincial secretary; the Hon. E. P. Taché, receiver-general; the Hon. J. A. Macdonald, attorney-general (Upper Canada); the Hon. L. T. Drummond, attorney-general (Lower Canada); the Hon. John Ross, (without portfolio).

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portfolio of attorney-general west, to become the real leader of the party. The most significant addition to the cabinet was that of Georges Etienne Cartier, who now for the first time became associated with Macdonald in a ministry. The coöperation of these two men was to be a principal factor in Canadian politics for many a year.

Sir Allan MacNab in saying "ours is a policy of railways," outlined the chief work of the session, during which numerous railways were incorporated. The year 1855 was also marked by the removal of the seat of government from Quebec to Toronto and by the renewal of violent discussion on the question of where it should be permanently fixed, a question destined to cause much heartburning ere it was settled. During 1856 a bill was passed making the legislative council elective, a constitutional change which had been rendered possible by the passing of an imperial Act, in accordance with the prayer of an address from the legislative assembly in the session of 1853. A similar bill had been passed by the assembly the year before, but had been rejected by the council. It is an interesting fact that while Macdonald supported this measure, George Brown opposed it. Macdonald's judgment as to the value of an elected council had changed before the time of the Confederation conference in Quebec in 1864, when he argued vigorously for a nominated Upper House.

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In the next year it became evident that the coalition could not be held together under the leadership of Sir Allan MacNab. The dissatisfaction of the Reform wing of his party—"Baldwin Reformers" as they were called—grew deeper and deeper. Though advancing years had modified his opinions, Sir Allan was emphatically a Tory, his ideal of government was that of a strengthened and purified Family Compact, and he had a *penchant*, unhappily not confined to Tories, of giving vacant positions solely to his own numerous hangers-on. Against this unequal distribution of patronage the Reform wing of the coalition loudly protested. Sir Allan was further handicapped and sometimes incapacitated by violent attacks of gout. But nothing was further from his thoughts than resignation, and the problem of superseding him was not easily solved. It would serve no useful purpose to detail the involved intrigues of this period. When Sir Allan had been displaced he inveighed both in public and in private against his successor. Had there been sufficient foundation for his attacks, the opponents of Macdonald would no doubt have been justified in taunting him with ingratitude, and there would have been some excuse for George Brown when he bitterly told him that his political path was marked out by grave-stones. Yet the charge was unfounded, and the part which Macdonald played was really considerate and generous. His virtual leadership was

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universally recognized; he doubtless felt in himself powers far greater than those possessed by Sir Allan MacNab even at his prime; he saw that the party was going to pieces, and felt that no one but himself had the power to hold it together; but neither in word or deed was he untrue to his old chief, nor did he prompt or assist the intrigues against him. A confidential letter written in 1854 to his most intimate party friend makes this clear. "You say truly that we are a good deal handicapped with 'old blood.' Sir Allan will not be in our way, however. He is very reasonable and requires only that we should not in his 'sere and yellow leaf' offer him the indignity of casting him aside. This I would never assent to, for I cannot forget his services in days gone by." There is nothing to show that Macdonald departed from this view. He would have preferred to wait till advancing years and infirmities rendered Sir Allan's resignation necessary, but events forced him to the front.

During the session of 1856 Sir Allan's gout grew worse, and so too did the temper with which he repelled all suggestions of resignation. At last the vexed question of the seat of government gave to the malcontents their chance. In April an Act was passed providing that after 1859 Quebec should be the permanent capital. In May, when an item of \$200,000 for the construction of buildings at Quebec was included among the sup-

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plementary estimates, the majority of the members from Upper Canada supported an amendment stating "that the course of the administration with reference to the seat of government and other important public questions has disappointed the just expectations of the great majority of the people of this province." Though the government was sustained by the votes of its Lower Canadian supporters, Messrs. Morrison and Spence, the Upper Canadian Reformers in the cabinet, at once resigned on the ground that they were not supported in their own province, and were followed by the Conservatives, Messrs. Cayley and Macdonald. In this resignation was involved the question of the "double majority." "It is worthy of note," says Mr. Pope, "that while almost every member of a government forty years ago regarded an adverse sectional vote as a serious blow to the existing administration, few could be found to affirm directly the soundness of the 'double majority' principle—that is, that no ministry should be held to possess the confidence of parliament unless it could command a majority in each section of the province."

There can be little doubt that in a legislative union, such as was that of Upper and Lower Canada, an adverse vote of one section no more entailed resignation than would an adverse vote of Scottish or Irish members involve the resignation of a British premier. When Robert Baldwin

THE "DOUBLE MAJORITY"

resigned in 1851 he did so, not on the ground of the "double majority" principle, but because in a question affecting the interests of Upper Canada alone and especially those of the legal profession, he, the attorney-general, had been put in a minority by the legal members from Upper Canada; and he distinctly advised his colleagues in the cabinet, who were not so deeply interested in the bill, not to follow his example. The only prominent upholder of the "double majority" as a constitutional theory was Mr. Sandfield Macdonald, who, regarding the union as a compact, held that the consent of a majority of the representatives of both sections of the compact was necessary to its continuance. But even he, when premier, threw overboard this theory. Yet in practice the social, racial, religious and historic questions involved made it impossible to rule permanently a united Canada without a majority in both sections. Hence while none of the four ministers who resigned admitted the constitutional necessity of the "double majority," and while Macdonald expressly saved his face by declaring "that he did not think that the 'double majority' should be adopted as a rule," all gave reasons for their action practically admitting it. Mr. Spence and Mr. Morrison explained their course on the ground that the wing of the coalition which they represented had withdrawn its support from the government; Mr. Cayley and Mr. Macdonald on the plea

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that after the defection of so large a body as the "Baldwin Reformers" "any attempt to carry on the government would be futile." Unable to fill their places, Sir Allan MacNab resigned. The governor-general, Sir Edmund Walker Head, called upon Colonel Taché to form a government, which the assistance of Macdonald alone enabled him to do, and on May 24th, 1856, the Taché-Macdonald administration assumed control. The stop-gap of 1844 was now leader of his party in Upper Canada and premier of the province in all but name.

Shortly after this, but during the same session, occurred the dramatic quarrel between Macdonald and George Brown. The editor of the *Globe* had been reproached for inconsistency in attacking the government after supporting the election of MacNab and Macdonald, as opponents of Hincks, in 1854. To this he replied that his change was justified by their subsequent conduct. Swinging his long arms, his characteristic gesture in moments of vehemence, he made a fierce attack upon what he termed the "kaleidoscopic politics" of Macdonald. It was the last of a long series of provocations, and for once the hot-tempered Highlander forgot alike his caution, his courtesy and his regard for truth. Springing to his feet he poured out a torrent of invective, stating that in 1849 Brown, while secretary of a commission appointed to investigate the condition of the peni-

POLITICAL QUARRELS

tentiary at Kingston, had "falsified the testimony of witnesses, suborned convicts to commit perjury, and obtained the pardon of murderers confined in the penitentiary to induce them to give false evidence." These charges Brown passionately denied, amid frequent and furious interruptions from Macdonald. On the request of the accused a commission was appointed, which presented two reports, of which that of the majority found that irregularities in the compilation of evidence had been committed by the penitentiary committee, but refused to decide how far responsibility for this attached to the secretary; for the graver charges against him no justification was alleged. The minority report was a complete exculpation of Mr. Brown. After long and passionate debates, in which Sir Allan MacNab bluntly declared that there was no evidence against Mr. Brown,¹ and that the committee should have had the manliness to say so, the House was prorogued without coming to a definite decision, and the matter was not again brought up. To Macdonald, who seldom lost control of his temper, this lapse into the region of elemental passion gave a severe lesson, and one which he did not forget; but the atmosphere of the session must have been peculiarly electric, for towards the end of June an altercation with Colonel Rankin, the member for Essex, grew

¹ This opinion was vehemently maintained also by William Lyon Mackenzie, Sir Allan's antagonist of former days and Mr. Brown's successful opponent in the Haldimand election.

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so hot that after the close of the session a challenge was sent by Macdonald. "I need hardly say," he writes to his second, "that circumstanced as I am, any meeting must take place out of Canada, but I am sure you will pay every regard to Mr. Rankin's convenience in the choice of the place of meeting." The encounter was averted, Mr. Rankin, recognizing that he had spoken on wrong information, made a frank apology, and lived to become one of Macdonald's warmest personal and political friends. It would seem that an equally frank apology from Macdonald to Brown might have gone far to mitigate the bitterness of personal hostility which long marked the relations of the two combatants.

Another question on which Macdonald and Brown came into strong opposition and on which his opponent for some time commanded a majority in Upper Canada, was the claim made by the Roman Catholics of Upper Canada for a separate system of schools. This Brown denounced as flat popery, while Macdonald, though theoretically opposed to the concession, supported it as necessary to ensure harmony, and also in view of the liberal treatment extended by the Roman Catholic Church to the Protestant minority in the province of Quebec. After years of controversy the Roman Catholics won their claim, and separate schools were finally established in 1862-3 by the Reform administration of Sandfield Macdonald.

PREMIER OF OLD CANADA

In 1857 the first step was taken in a movement big with consequences for Canada. The imperial government had appointed a committee to investigate the claims of the Hudson's Bay Company to the northern and western parts of what is now the Dominion of Canada, and invited the Canadian government to send a commissioner to take part in the enquiry. The acquisition by Canada of these vast regions had for some time been urged by prominent men of both parties, and at Macdonald's instance Chief-justice Draper was sent to uphold the Canadian claims before the committee, which he did with boldness and skill. For some years nothing more was done, but even amid the clash of party warfare neither George Brown nor Macdonald forgot the vast area of wood and prairie between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains.

Towards the end of this year, 1857, failing health forced Colonel Taché to resign. The governor-general at once sent for the attorney-general west, who soon succeeded in forming a government in conjunction with his friend Georges Etienne Cartier, henceforth his constant ally, and on November 26th, 1857, John Alexander Macdonald became premier of the Province of Canada. Little could he then have dreamed that thirty-three years later he would still be prime minister of Canada, but of a Canada which had expanded into a great Dominion stretching from ocean to

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ocean. He at once dissolved the House and appealed to the people on the issues, forced on by Brown, of separate schools and representation by population. His views on the school question have already been stated; on that of representation by population he argued that the union of 1841 was of the nature of a compact, and that so fundamental a change could not be carried without the dissolution of the union. He was also opposed to it as being a tacit recognition of the principle of universal suffrage, which he always opposed, contending that property was an essential condition of the right to vote. In this view he was supported by his colleagues, though not without great searchings of heart. As early as 1855 one of them had written to him protesting against "the leeching process going on toward Upper Canada," and all his skill was taxed to hold them faithful to his ideas of toleration and of compromise.

The government fared badly in Upper Canada, where the Liberals obtained a large majority, but Cartier and the Church swept Quebec, and only a handful of the *Rouges*, on whom were visited the sins of George Brown and his party, survived the storm. But though thus sustained, Macdonald felt keenly the difficulty of governing Upper Canada by the French vote, and made overtures for a coalition to a band of moderate Reformers headed by John Sandfield Macdonald, who had grown

THE SHORT ADMINISTRATION

tired alike of the policy and of the personality of Brown. To his namesake Macdonald offered a choice of positions in the cabinet, with the right to appoint two colleagues, provided neither was a Grit. But Sandfield Macdonald was aiming at higher things, and the next day his refusal came in the characteristic telegram, "No go."

Later in this year, 1858, occurred the two memorable events known as "The Short Administration" and "The Double Shuffle." The vexed question of the seat of government had been referred to Her Majesty, who, at the suggestion of Sir Edmund Head, chose Ottawa, then known as Bytown. Great was the dissatisfaction of Quebec, Montreal, Kingston, and Toronto, and when the ministry accepted the queen's award, the Opposition succeeded in carrying the motion that "in the opinion of this House the city of Ottawa ought not to be the permanent seat of government of this province." Though sustained later in the day on a motion of want of confidence, the government announced that they felt it their duty to resent the slight put by the assembly upon Her Majesty, and resigned. Called on to form a government, Mr. Brown accepted the task, and got together a ministry which lasted rather less than forty-eight hours. The refusal of His Excellency to grant to the new government a dissolution as a means of testing public opinion was bitterly criticized by the

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Reformers, but under the circumstances was probably justified, since there was little likelihood that the previous verdict of the electors would be reversed. Then followed a curious incident.

On the defeat of the Brown-Dorion government, His Excellency summoned Mr. (afterwards Sir A. T.) Galt, the member for Sherbrooke, well known as an authority on finance, and as an advocate of the federal union of the British North American colonies. But Mr. Galt, though personally popular on both sides of the House, had no immediate following, and wisely declined the task. Cartier was then sent for, and in connection with Macdonald, formed an administration practically the same as that which had recently resigned, but with Cartier as premier, and including, as finance minister, Galt, who accepted office on the express stipulation that federation should be actively supported by the new ministry. As a result of the well-known rule by which a newly-appointed minister is compelled to resign and to seek reëlection from his constituents, Brown, Dorion, and their colleagues were now not in the House. But in order to facilitate temporary changes of portfolio, it had been enacted that no minister should be obliged to seek reëlection who resigned one portfolio and in less than a month accepted another. Of this the incoming ministers took advantage. During the evening of August 6th they took the oath of office, each assuming a different portfolio

THE "DOUBLE SHUFFLE"

from that which he had before held. Cartier became inspector-general and Macdonald post-master-general. Early in the morning of the next day they resigned their portfolios, and resumed those formerly held, Cartier becoming attorney-general east and Macdonald attorney-general west. By this altogether too clever trick they avoided the expense and uncertainty of an election. But though some endeavoured to defend it, and though it has been ingeniously compared to the well-known device by which a member of the imperial House desiring to resign his seat accepts the stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds, there is no doubt that the better judgment of the community was shocked, and the law has since been amended so as to render a repetition of the manœuvre impossible.

From 1858 to 1862 the Cartier-Macdonald ministry succeeded in avoiding defeat, no small accomplishment considering the complications and perturbations of the time, and the general absence of steady influences. The legislative records of this period have little to interest the reader of to-day. In the summer of 1859 the seat of government was removed from Toronto to Quebec. In the autumn of 1860 the country was visited by H. R. H. the Prince of Wales (now King Edward), who with much pomp opened the Victoria Bridge which spans the St. Lawrence at Montreal. Throughout the country there was

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universal rejoicing, and the loyalty of the Canadian people was abundantly displayed. The popular pleasure was, however, somewhat marred by an unseemly contention, in which Macdonald was unwillingly involved. The Duke of Newcastle, colonial secretary at that time, and the prince's mentor during the visit, became embroiled with the powerful Orange order through his refusal to allow the prince to land at Kingston, Macdonald's constituency, in which the Orangemen were so strong that it was known as "the Derry of Canada," and where special Orange decorations had been prepared for the occasion. All Macdonald's tact was needed to keep on good terms both with his aggrieved constituents and with the imperial minister.

In 1862 the government was unexpectedly defeated on a militia bill introduced by Macdonald for the better organization of the Canadian forces, and rendered advisable by the war then raging in the United States. He enjoyed the unwonted sensation of being in a majority in Upper Canada, but Cartier could not on this occasion keep his followers in line, the measure being distasteful, on the whole, to the French-Canadian constituencies. Its defeat caused much surprise and a certain degree of irritation in England, and undoubtedly furthered the movement of feeling, which culminated about 1870, in favour of allowing the colonies to shift for themselves.

DEADLOCK

There is evidence that Macdonald had for some time been becoming less pronounced in his opposition to representation by population. In the reconstruction of the administration early in 1862 this had been left an open question, and three colleagues had been introduced into the cabinet who were known to be in its favour. It is probable that had not a wider solution been found, in which representation by population had its due place, he might have devised a combination for carrying it, embracing safeguards for the rights and privileges of Lower Canada. Before the finding of that wider solution, two years were to elapse, during which the wheels of government drove yet more heavily.

During 1860 and 1861 the influence of George Brown, whom the country was beginning to regard as an agitator rather than as a statesman, had declined, and a distinct body of moderate Reformers had been formed under the leadership of Sandfield Macdonald and Mr. L. V. Sicotte. To these the governor-general now appealed, and the Sandfield Macdonald-Sicotte ministry came into being on a policy of retrenchment and of strict observance of the "double majority." They were opposed at once by Brown and by the Conservatives, and so were defeated on a vote of want of confidence moved by Macdonald. Sandfield Macdonald, instead of resigning, promptly joined forces with Brown, Dorion and the *Rouges*, and the government, thus reconstructed, tottered

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on till March, 1864. Then, as an important election had gone against them, and reduced their dubious majority, the government resigned without waiting for a formal dismissal by parliament. After much embarrassment the governor-general, Lord Monck, finally succeeded in inducing Sir E. P. Taché to leave his retirement, and to form a government in connection with J. A. Macdonald, whose objection to taking office at all was only overcome with difficulty. This new administration was in its turn overthrown early in June. Thus in three years four ministries had been defeated and two general elections had failed to ease the strain. The two parties were at a deadlock; the wheels of the union compromise had become clogged beyond remedy. To these political embarrassments were added financial difficulties, largely connected with the Grand Trunk Railway. Faced with complications so various, Canadian statesmen showed that, in their country's need, the leaders of both parties could waive their political and personal differences, and seek in a higher and wider sphere of action the solution of the problems which in existing conditions had proved so hopeless.

CHAPTER V

COALITION TO CARRY CONFEDERATION

1864 TO 1865

THE year 1864 must always be memorable in Canadian history. It marks the point where the old system of governing the united provinces of Upper and Lower Canada broke down, and some new political departure became a necessity. After the defeat of the Taché-Macdonald ministry the outlook seemed practically hopeless, since there was no reason to expect that a further appeal to the electors would produce a different result. The union formed twenty-three years before had proved unworkable.

Only under strong protest had Macdonald taken part in this last ministry—his desire to withdraw from public life was openly expressed and, in all probability, sincerely felt. The difficulties of governing two provinces, in which racial and religious differences had been fanned into flame for party ends, were enough to deter the most courageous from carrying on the thankless task. But, as on more than one previous occasion, he recognized that the queen's government must be carried on; and so, nominally as attorney-general for Upper Canada, but really as the leader of the administra-

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tion, he took office. We can now see that the complications, which seemed to render constitutional government in Canada well-nigh impossible, were in reality preparing the ground for a system adapted to the changing needs of the country, and capable of vast development. It seems unlikely that anything but a deadlock in the machinery of the legislature would have induced the leaders of the two great parties to drop for a time their animosities and unite in an effort to solve the complicated problems of Canadian politics. But the deadlock had now come. Two general elections and the defeat of four ministries within three years had done nothing to improve the situation. Ministry and Opposition sat facing each other on the floors of the legislature with nearly equal numbers; intrigue had done its utmost to incline the balance of advantage to either side; in the country one phalanx of irreconcilables resolutely faced another equally determined and equally strong. Fortunately beneath the surface heat of party passion there still glowed the steady fires of genuine Canadian patriotism. The vision of a greater union arose to make men forget, for a time at least, their personal animosities and differences and unite in a work of consolidation.

On the day that the Taché-Macdonald government was defeated, the proposal of a coalition framed to extricate the country from its difficulties was made, to his unending honour, by Macdonald's

BROWN AND FEDERAL UNION

vehement opponent, George Brown. For a time at least the ardent party leader was transformed into the self-sacrificing patriot, and in this spirit he made the offer of assistance from himself and his friends to enable the defeated government to carry on the business of the country while preparing a scheme of federal union. The first suggestion was that this federation should embrace only Upper and Lower Canada; but the larger scheme for uniting all British North America had already seized upon the public imagination, and it was soon found that nothing less than this would furnish a sufficient rallying-point for party groups.

Many circumstances conspired to turn men's minds at this time towards the great national ideal of a union of the whole of British North America. The idea was not new. Political dreamers had suggested it early in the century—inspired, no doubt, by the example of the United States. Lord Durham had outlined the vision in 1839. He found the public mind already in a measure prepared for its realization. In his report he says: "I diseussed a general measure for the government of the colonies with the deputations from the Lower Provinces, and with various leading individuals and public bodies in both the Canadas . . . and I was gratified by finding the leading minds of the various colonies strongly and generally inclined to a scheme that would elevate their countries into something like a national existence."

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While the exigencies of the situation in Quebec led him to thrust aside the scheme of a general union as for the moment impracticable, he returns to the ideal with the foresight of a great statesman: "I am inclined to go further, and inquire whether all these objects would not more surely be obtained by extending this legislative union over all the British provinces in North America; and whether the advantages which I anticipate for two of them, might not, and should not in justice, be extended over all. Such a union would at once decisively settle the question of races; it would enable all the provinces to coöperate for all common purposes; and, above all, it would form a great and powerful people, possessing the means of securing good and responsible government for itself, and which, under the protection of the British empire, might in some measure counterbalance the preponderant and increasing influence of the United States on the American continent." He continues: "I do not anticipate that a colonial legislature thus strong and thus self-governing, would desire to abandon the connection with Great Britain. On the contrary, I believe that the practical relief from undue interference, which would be the result of such a change, would strengthen the present bonds of feeling and interests; and that the connection would only become more durable and advantageous by having more of equality, of freedom, and of local inde-

CONFEDERATION PROPOSED

pendence. But at any rate, our first duty is to secure the well-being of our colonial countrymen; and if in the hidden decrees of that wisdom by which this world is ruled, it is written that these countries are not forever to remain portions of the empire, we owe it to our honour to take good care, that, when they separate from us, they should not be the only countries on the American continent in which the Anglo-Saxon race shall be found unfit to govern itself."

The British American League, founded in 1849, largely under Macdonald's inspiration, as an offset to the annexation manifesto which followed Lord Elgin's assent to the Rebellion Losses Bill and the burning of the Parliament House at Montreal, adopted the confederation of all the provinces as one of its main objects, and embodied its convictions in a series of resolutions which united that aim with the creation of a national commercial policy and the fundamental principle of inviolable connection with the mother country.

The first formal adoption of the idea by a legislative body was in the province of Nova Scotia, where the assembly, in 1854, unanimously passed a resolution that, "the union or confederation of the British provinces, while calculated to perpetuate their connection with the parent state, will promote their advancement and prosperity, increase their strength and influence, and elevate their position."

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The occasion was marked by a speech of remarkable power by Joseph Howe, the leader of the Liberal party and one of the most brilliant orators that Canada has ever produced.

In Howe's mind a united British North America was the true stepping-stone to a firmly united empire, while both were essential to the highest political development of the nation. Howe's friend Haliburton (Sam Slick), the Canadian father of the American school of humour, had lent his keen wit and vigorous political intelligence to the same advocacy. In the year 1858, under the premiership of Sir Georges Cartier, an official stamp was given to the consideration of the question in the Canadian legislature by the following paragraph embodied in the speech from the throne:—

“I propose in the course of the recess to communicate with Her Majesty's government and with the governments of sister colonies on another matter of great importance. I am desirous of inviting them to discuss with us the principles upon which a bond of a federal character, uniting the provinces of North America, may perhaps hereafter be practicable.”

In the debate which ensued Sir Alexander Galt had taken a prominent part, and in an able speech had demonstrated the possibility of working out such a scheme. Following up the discussion which then took place, Cartier, Galt and another col-

REASONS FOR CONFEDERATION

league, Rose, proceeded, soon after the close of the session, to England to secure the approval of the British government and to get authority to consult the Maritime Provinces.

Meanwhile the impulse towards union was strengthened by various practical considerations. The age of railway development was fairly begun and there was now, among all interested in the growth of trade and commerce, a strong desire for free communication between the provinces. The customs barriers erected in every province checked the free interchange of products, and hence also the full development of industry. Postal and telegraph systems managed independently by each provincial government were seen to be inadequate to the public need; varying systems of law, civil and criminal, hampered the administration of justice and the operations of commerce. In a hundred directions it was felt that to confine within provincial bounds the currents of political life meant industrial and commercial atrophy. To these internal conditions external circumstances of great significance added their pressure, and made an enlarged and invigorated system of government more necessary than ever before. The American war of secession had broken out in 1861. The seizure by an American man-of-war of two Confederate commissioners, who were being carried to Europe on a British merchant ship, (the *Trent*) brought the two nations

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to the brink of conflict. Canada seemed threatened with invasion; troops poured across the Atlantic, and the militia were called out to defend the country. In the end the captured commissioners were surrendered and war was averted, but American animosity had been aroused and invasion was still possible. The tension was increased, on the one side by the exploits of the Southern privateer *Alabama*, which had escaped from a British port and was destroying American commerce, and on the other side by raids of Fenian filibusters upon the Canadian frontiers. The capacity of Canada to defend itself became an urgent question, not only among Canadians themselves but with the imperial government. The point of radical weakness evidently rested in the lack of any common policy or the means of joint action among the scattered and independent provinces.

To fears of armed invasion was added the threat of commercial war. The need of a more extensive home market was brought home to Canadian statesmen by the manifest intention of the American government to denounce the treaty of reciprocity negotiated by Lord Elgin in 1854. This treaty had been of great advantage to both nations; while, during the war, the balance of trade had been in favour of Canada, the United States enjoyed the still greater boon of ability to obtain cheap and plentiful supplies at a time of great national peril. But some Canadian expressions of sympathy

RECIPROCITY ABOLISHED

for the South aroused great anger, though such verbal aid to their enemies might have been considered as offset by the presence of forty thousand soldiers of Canadian blood in the armies of the North. Nor can it be doubted that the abrogation of the treaty was regarded by many American politicians as the first step in the process of starving Canada into union. At a great convention of business men held in Detroit early in 1865, a speech by Joseph Howe won a unanimous vote in favour of the renewal of the treaty, but later in the year it was denounced by the American government, and came to an end in March, 1866. Threatened in 1864 with this impending blow, and also with the abrogation of the bonding privilege, by which goods from foreign countries might be brought into Canada through American territory without breaking bulk or paying duty at the American port of entry, the need for a more extensive home market and for independent lines of connection with the sea was obvious.

But while the older generation of Canadians may have thought of Confederation chiefly as a means of escape from the political tangles of past years, or as a means of defence, to the younger men of the country it appealed mainly as a national inspiration. There had never seemed any sufficient reason why the Canadian provinces should move so slowly as they did while develop-

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ment, vast and rapid, was going on beyond the boundary line to the South. It was irritating to find that those who sought a larger field for enterprise or industry gradually drifted away from Canadian farms and villages to find scope for themselves in an alien country. Provincial narrowness of view, hostile interprovincial tariffs, lack of easy communication between the old Canadian provinces and those of the Atlantic seaboard, an absence of that national spirit which springs from the sense of united strength and a great future, were the reasons which naturally suggested themselves to every thinking man when he began to weigh the reasons for Canadian inferiority on the American continent. The outside world inclined to attribute the situation to that severity of climate which appeared to terrify the emigrants who poured in thousands into regions further south, or to some lack of natural resources. But those who were better acquainted with the facts and who knew the country's wealth of forest, fisheries, mine, and productive soil, knew also that the cause of comparative failure in the rate of progress must be sought in other circumstances, and they seemed to find it in the dispersion of force inseparable from the existing political conditions.

Yet, although since 1849 federation had been Macdonald's ideal, constantly held, and frequently expressed, he by no means leaped at this oppor-

CONFEDERATION DIFFICULTIES

tunity of realizing it with the quick impulsiveness of George Brown. No man knew so well the difficulties and dangers to be faced, especially in the province of Quebec; difficulties not only in the execution of the scheme, but in its subsequent operation. During the last days of the Macdonald-Dorion ministry, a committee of the leading members of both sides of the House had been appointed, at the instance of George Brown, "to enquire and report on the important subjects embraced in" the memorandum submitted in February, 1859, by Messrs. Cartier, Galt and Ross to the imperial government, "and the best means of remedying the evils therein set forth." This committee, which sat with closed doors, brought in a report in favour of "a federative system, applied either to Canada alone, or to the whole British North American provinces." Of the three members of the committee who opposed the adoption of the report, Macdonald was one. When later Brown made his historic offer, long conferences with Cartier, Galt and his other chief supporters from Lower Canada, preceded Macdonald's acceptance. But, when finally convinced that the hour had come, he rose at once to the height of his great opportunity, and, during the next three years of negotiations with recalcitrant supporters, with hesitating sister provinces, and with the mother country, displayed a skill that, by comparison, dwarfs the

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efforts of any of his colleagues. Much ink has been wasted to decide the paternity of Confederation. The question would be simplified if the disputants remembered that men and circumstances must concur to bring great natural movements to the birth. Confederation had many fathers; to one man alone is it mainly due that the child took a vigorous hold of life.

Brown had at first been anxious to give to the ministry only an outside support, but Macdonald was inflexible in the demand that Brown should take all the responsibilities of cabinet position in working out the scheme, and the patriotism of the latter finally overcame his personal and party prejudices. At the cost of a rupture with Holton, Dorion and the *Rouges*, he entered with two colleagues the ministry of Sir Etienne Taché. Though for years no word had passed between Macdonald and himself, both men now honourably sank their differences. In Macdonald's words, "We acted together, dined at public places together, played euchre in crossing the Atlantic, and went into society in England together. And yet on the day after he resigned we resumed our old positions and ceased to speak."

Brown's first proposition had been for a federal union of the two provinces, and his enthusiasm for the larger scheme was probably due to the freedom which it promised to Ontario from "French domination." Macdonald's eye was turned rather

INFLUENCE OF UNION

to the possibility of building up what he described as "a nation, a subordinate, but still a powerful, people to stand by Britain in North America, in peace or in war," and, in describing the opportunities for growth which lay before the new nation, he showed what was for him an unusual warmth of enthusiasm. "When this union takes place, we shall be at the outset no inconsiderable people. And a rapidly increasing population—for I am satisfied that under this union our population will increase in a still greater ratio than ever before—with increased credit—with a higher position in the eyes of Europe—with the increased security we can offer to emigrants, who would naturally prefer to seek a new home in what is known to them as a great country, than in any one little colony or another—with all this I am satisfied that, great as has been our progress in the last twenty-five years since the union between Upper and Lower Canada, our future progress, during the next quarter of a century, will be vastly greater. And when, by means of this rapid increase, we become a nation of eight or nine millions of inhabitants, our alliance will be worthy of being sought by the great nations of the earth."

To build up this new nation, harbours open throughout the year were indispensable, and could be obtained only by union with the Maritime Provinces. An opportunity for negotiation soon presented itself. Under the guidance of Dr. (after-

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wards Sir Charles) Tupper, the energetic premier of Nova Scotia, a conference to discuss the union of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, had been arranged at Charlottetown. The Canadian ministry obtained permission to send delegates to set before this meeting the wider prospect. Early in September the conference met, and so great was the impression made by the Canadian proposals, that it was resolved to discuss them at a more formal gathering at Quebec. Before returning home the Canadian delegates made a short tour through the Maritime Provinces, and attended a banquet at Halifax, at which impressive speeches were made by Brown and Macdonald.

On October 10th the conference met in Quebec. The place that had witnessed the decisive conflict between Frenchmen and Englishmen for supremacy in America was now to see French and English met together in a peaceful consultation aiming at the political organization of half the continent. Appropriate and historically significant was the fact that with universal approval the French-Canadian premier of Canada, Sir Etienne Taché, was selected as chairman. The leadership lost in arms in 1759 had thus been regained in the council room in 1864, a circumstance noted at the time as testifying no less to the genius of the defeated race than to the perfect equality of political opportunity accorded by the victors.

THE QUEBEC CONFERENCE

The conference at Quebec proclaimed the fact that within the British empire evolution had taken the place of revolution as the path of political development.

Eighty-eight years before, another conference of British colonists had met at Philadelphia to establish new political relations based upon revolt, and later to be established by prolonged conflict in arms. A great nation was founded, but at the price of animosities which a century of history has barely effaced. But at Quebec the conference met with the full approval of the people and parliament of the motherland. They were the free representatives of a free people, charged with the peaceful task of framing a political system adapted to the needs of a country which had before it an almost limitless horizon of expansion. They had the experience of both England and the neighbouring republic to draw upon—they had the model which each afforded to copy or refuse.

It was decided that the convention should conduct its deliberations with closed doors. The arguments for this course were strong. A new set of political problems was to be discussed—views would be modified as consideration proceeded—and delegates should not be prejudiced in forming final judgments by early expressions of opinion.

The ablest men of all sides of politics had met, not to fight old party battles or use old party cries, but to find how, by mutual concession, divergent

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interests could be harmonized for a great national end. In such a gathering appeals to the gallery would be singularly out of place. The utmost freedom of debate was thus assured, while publicity—that greatest of political safeguards—was guaranteed ultimately by the fact that the conclusions of the conference, matured in unrestrained debate, would be fully discussed by the press, on the platform, and in the legislatures before they could have constitutional effect.

The conference sat from October 10th till October 28th. Though towards the last its deliberations were hurried, and though several changes were eventually made in its proposals, the seventy-two resolutions which it passed embody the main lines on which Confederation was finally accomplished, and are a work of great political wisdom and sagacity. A mass of notes preserved by Sir John Macdonald still remains unedited in the hands of Mr. Pope, but from material that has been published the general trend of the negotiations can be followed. The war raging in the United States seemed to Canadian statesmen to show that the great vice of the American constitution was the vagueness which had enabled the seceding states to claim that they were independent and sovereign bodies, with full right to resume the powers which they had temporarily delegated to a central authority. Hence, from the first, it was determined to subordinate the provincial legislatures to the fed-

A STRONG CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

eral. "In framing the constitution " said Macdonald at the opening session, "care should be taken to avoid the mistakes and weaknesses of the United States' system, the primary error of which was the reservation to the different states of all powers not delegated to the general government. We must reverse this process by establishing a strong central government, to which shall belong all powers not specially conferred on the provinces. Canada, in my opinion, is better off as she stands than she would be as a member of a confederacy composed of five sovereign states, which would be the result if the powers of the local governments were not defined."

"Those who were at Charlottetown will remember," said Dr. Tupper on October 24th, "that it was finally specified there that all the powers not given to local, should be reserved to the federal, government. This was stated as being a prominent feature of the Canadian scheme, and it was said then that it was desirable to have a plan contrary to that adopted by the United States. It was a fundamental principle laid down by Canada and the basis of our negotiations." Macdonald indeed was strongly in favour of a legislative union, but the strong local patriotism of the Maritime Provinces, and still more that of Lower Canada, rendered such an idea impossible.

"I have again and again stated in the House," he said in the next year, "that, if practicable, I

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thought a legislative union would be preferable. I have always contended that if we could agree to have one government and one parliament legislating for the whole of these peoples, it would be the best, the cheapest, the most vigorous, and the strongest system of government that we could adopt. But, on looking at the subject at the conference, and discussing the matter, as we did, most unreservedly, with a desire to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion, we found that such a system was impracticable. In the first place, it would not meet the assent of the people of Lower Canada, because they felt that, in their peculiar position,—being in a minority, with a different language, nationality, and religion from the majority,—in case of a junction with the other provinces, their institutions and their laws might be assailed, and their ancestral associations on which they prided themselves attacked and prejudiced; it was found that any proposition which involved the absorption of the individuality of Lower Canada,—if I may use the expression,—would not be received with favour by her people. We found too, that though their people speak the same language and enjoy the same system of law as Upper Canada, a system founded on the common law of England, there was as great a disinclination on the part of the people of the Maritime Provinces to lose their individuality as separate political organizations as we observed in

A FEDERAL UNION

the case of Lower Canada itself. Therefore we were forced to the conclusion that we must either abandon the idea of union altogether, or devise a system of union in which the separate provincial organizations would in some degree be preserved. So that those who were, like myself, in favour of a legislative union, were obliged to modify their views, and accept the project of a federal union as the only scheme practicable even for the Maritime Provinces."

Mr. DeCelles in his life of Cartier, in this series, produces some evidence for a remarkable story that, during the subsequent negotiations in London, Macdonald tried to force a legislative union upon his colleagues, hoping that the dissatisfaction in the recalcitrant provinces would die down when they were confronted with the *fait accompli*, and that he was only foiled by the refusal of Cartier. Though the idea may have crossed his mind, he must have known too well its impossibility to make such a proposal in any other spirit than that of whimsical jest. But it is evident that the great majority of the delegates at Quebec wished to make the central authority as powerful as was consistent with the federal principle, and that in this respect the Canadian constitution stands at the opposite pole from that of the United States. The long struggle for provincial rights to be described in Chapter IX, prevented the complete fulfilment of Mac-

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donald's ideal, but the autonomy of the Canadian provinces is far more extensively curtailed than that of the American or Australian states.

The financial relations between the various provinces and the central authority proved a problem which taxed all the skill of Galt, Tilley, and the other financial experts among the delegates to whom this part of the negotiations was chiefly entrusted. The equitable distribution of the public debts of the various provinces, which were to be assumed by the Dominion, presented considerable difficulty. The commercial policy of the Maritime Provinces tended towards free trade, that of the Canadas to protection; the Canadas had a municipal system which, in the Upper Province especially, had attained to a high degree of perfection, and which controlled numerous local matters, the expenses of which in the Maritime Provinces were paid from the provincial treasury. Though the solution reached has proved, in the main, satisfactory, it has been found necessary more than once to make amendments, and the agitation of Nova Scotia for "better terms" did much to embitter the early years of the Dominion.

The constitution of the Upper House absorbed a larger amount of time and anxious thought than its subsequent influence in the government of the country has justified. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick had nominative upper chambers, while in the Canadas the legislative council had, since 1856,

THE SENATE

been elective. In practice this addition to the already large number of elections had not proved a success; men of age and experience would not endure the trouble and uncertainty of an election, while the young and ambitious made the popular chamber their goal. Hence both Brown and Macdonald concurred in advocating a nominative upper chamber. To this they were also led by their wish to imitate as far as possible the British Constitution, Macdonald comparing the senators to so many life peers. Besides, such a chamber was an indispensable portion of the federal scheme, since the smaller provincial units of the Dominion would not have consented to federation unless the inequality of representation by population in the Commons had been balanced by the equal representation of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, and the Maritime Provinces taken as a group in the senate. In actual fact the Canadian senate has not, save in a very few exceptional instances, wielded any power at all corresponding to that of the House of Lords in England, or that of the senate in the United States. For this failure to realize the expectations of those who framed its constitution, Macdonald himself must be held largely responsible. An Upper House gets its weight either from ancient tradition and lineage, from being the choice of the electors, or from personal and collective ability, combined with impartiality, in its members. From the first two of these sources of

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prestige a nominated body like the senate is cut off. When Macdonald established the system of using his power of nomination to the senate only as an instrument to strengthen his party—to reward defeated candidates or faithful supporters, without much reference to ability—he struck at the very root of what makes an Upper House powerful in the confidence of the country. The original nominations to the senate included an equal proportion of Conservatives and Liberals, and it then furnished the germ for a very influential legislative body, but during his long subsequent tenure of office only a single Liberal senator was appointed by Macdonald. His example has been strictly followed by the Liberal party when in power. Had Macdonald used the same discretion in strengthening the senate that he did in strengthening the judiciary of the Dominion, the history of that chamber might have been one of increasing, rather than diminishing, usefulness and influence. His excuse, and that of other premiers, for the course actually followed, lies in the tyranny of party feeling. A more enlightened public opinion can alone supply the remedy.

The vexed question of representation by population was solved in a manner justly styled by Macdonald “equally ingenious and simple” since it granted this much desired boon without joining thereto his bugbear of manhood suffrage. “By adopting the representation of Lower Canada as a

BASIS OF REPRESENTATION

fixed standard," he said, " as the pivot on which the whole would turn—that province being the best suited for the purpose, on account of the comparatively permanent character of its population, and from its having neither the largest nor the least number of inhabitants, we have been enabled to overcome the difficulty I have mentioned. We have introduced the system of representation by population without the danger of an inconvenient increase in the number of representatives on the recurrence of each decennial period. The whole thing is worked by a simple Rule of Three. For instance, we have in Upper Canada 1,400,000 of a population ; in Lower Canada 1,100,000. Now, the proposition is simply this, if Lower Canada with its population of 1,100,000 has a right to sixty-five members, how many members should Upper Canada have, with its larger population of 1,400,000 ? The same rule applies to the other provinces, the proportion is always observed and the principle of representation by population carried out. If an increase is made, Lower Canada is still to remain the pivot on which the whole calculation will turn."

George Brown was satisfied with this solution of the question which had so long provided the chief motive power of his politics. The great principles of federation having been settled, unanimity on minor points was reached without much difficulty. For once the foremost leaders of party politics had

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nobly responded to the demand for higher aims
and larger statesmanship.

CHAPTER VI

THE BIRTH OF THE DOMINION

1865 TO 1867

SO far the negotiations for Confederation had gone smoothly and satisfactorily ; difficulties, doubts, and dangers were to fill the next two years. Nowhere, save perhaps in Ontario, was there any strong wave of popular enthusiasm for the new measure ; it was promoted by thinkers and farseeing statesmen, amid the apathy, and in some sections even the sullenness, of the electorate. In Quebec, Dorion in Opposition appealed to the *habitants'* dread of being swamped by an English majority, and the appeal awakened a quick response. In the same province the English minority feared that their schools might be left to the tender mercies of the Roman Catholic majority, and claimed safeguards, delay in the guarantee of which led to the temporary resignation of Galt, their chief spokesman. But the fearless optimism of Cartier triumphed. He was strong in the support of the Catholic clergy who saw in Confederation the only refuge from union, whether peaceful or forcible, with the American republic, and the consequent loss of the cherished rights and privileges guaranteed to them by their compact

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with the British nation. Thus, not for the first time, did the enlightened selfishness of that great body save Canada.

In Nova Scotia opposition was organized by a number of prominent bankers and merchants in Halifax, who saw that the proposed union would throw open the province, hitherto their preserve, to commercial and financial rivals from Montreal and Toronto ; in the country districts the old prejudice against Canada was roused ; memories of bickering over the Intercolonial Railway were revived ; the intense local pride of the province was inflamed. Other local issues added their weight. In 1863 Dr. Tupper had succeeded in passing through the House a law establishing compulsory primary education ; its expense bore heavily upon the thrifty Scottish settlers, who took this opportunity of showing their discontent. In the same measure the refusal of separate schools to the Roman Catholics had angered the Irish voters, and though their large-minded archbishop ardently supported Confederation, his flock showed ominous signs of revolt. The agitation found a leader in Joseph Howe, long the popular idol of his native province, the brilliant champion of responsible government, the eloquent prophet of national unity before that great dream had even come upon the horizon of English statesmanship. But mingled with his large qualities Howe had some of the weaknesses of lesser men. He had been

MARITIME PROVINCE OPPOSITION

absent from the province in 1864 as imperial fishery commissioner, and on his return his vanity was piqued to find the scheme launched without his aid by Dr. Tupper, his rival in provincial politics. There seems no other adequate explanation than this of the attitude which he now took towards a measure which was on the direct line of his previous utterances and of his well-known aspirations. He threw himself into the reactionary movement, and, playing upon the prejudices of a people whom no one understood so well as he, lashed his province into a fury of opposition.

Somewhat similar cries were raised in New Brunswick, and doubts especially were thrown upon the sincerity of the pledges given in regard to the proposed Intercolonial Railway. In March, 1865, the local government, which had accepted Confederation, appealed to the people, and was overwhelmingly defeated—in Macdonald's judgment because time had not been given for the education of public opinion. Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island withdrew from the negotiations; in Nova Scotia, Dr. Tupper, influenced by these checks, postponed further action until he could feel sure of carrying the measure in the legislature. The situation was one of grave anxiety. Writing afterwards to Mr. Tilley, Macdonald said: "The failure in the Maritime Provinces caused Canada the greatest embarrass-

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ment. It perilled the existence of the government, and what was of more consequence, it raised the hopes of the American or annexation party ; it discouraged the Loyalists, and it shook the faith of the English people in the permanence of the connection with Great Britain."

Amid the blasts of this unexpected storm of opposition, Macdonald stood firm. On February 3rd, 1865, he introduced into parliament the resolutions adopted at the Quebec conference. The debates which ensued were worthy of the greatness of the subject. Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, Galt, D'Arcy McGee and others eloquently defended the proposals, which were opposed by Holton, Dorion, Dunkin and Sandfield Macdonald. A high level of statesmanlike grasp and of insight was reached, and in face of so grave a problem personal recriminations were abandoned. Only one or two characteristic sentences, illustrating his attitude of mind in dealing with the question, can here be given from Macdonald's speech in moving the resolution. "It seemed" he said, "to all the statesmen assembled [at Quebec] it was clear to them all, that the best interests and present and future prosperity of British North America would be promoted by a federal union under the Crown of Great Britain. And it seems to me as to them, and I think it will so appear to the people of this country, that, if we wish to be a great people, if we wish to form—using the ex-

PLEA FOR UNION

pression which was sneered at the other evening—a great nationality, commanding the respect of the world, able to hold our own against all opponents, and to defend those institutions we prize; if we wish to have one system of government, and to establish a commercial union with unrestricted free trade between the people of the five provinces, belonging, as they do, to the same nation, obeying the same sovereign, owing the same allegiance, and being, for the most part, of the same blood and lineage; if we wish to be able to afford each other the means of mutual defence and support against aggression and attack, this can only be obtained by a union of some kind between the scattered and weak colonies composing the British North American provinces.”

And again in conclusion: “I would again implore the House not to let this opportunity pass. It is an opportunity which may never recur. If we do not take advantage of the time; if we show ourselves unequal to the occasion, it may never return, and we shall hereafter bitterly and unavailingly regret having failed to embrace the happy opportunity now afforded of founding a great nation under the fostering care of Great Britain, and our Sovereign Lady, Queen Victoria.”

There was force in the objection raised by Sandfield Macdonald that so vital a change should not be passed without being submitted to the people either at a general election or by plebiscite. But so

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far as the Canadas were concerned, Macdonald was probably right in the view he expressed to a correspondent early in February, 1865 : “ The Confederation has now been before the country for some time, and it seems to meet with general, if not universal, favour. I hear of no meetings against it, and as yet there have been no petitions transmitted adverse to the policy. Under the circumstances the government have a right to assume, as well as the legislature, that the scheme in principle meets with the approbation of the country.”

At any rate, in the interests of the great scheme, Macdonald could not afford delay, and on the eleventh of March the resolutions were passed in the House of Assembly by a vote of ninety-one to thirty-three. Further analysis of the vote shows that the Upper Canadian representatives were fifty-four to eight, those of Lower Canada thirty-seven to twenty-five. Earlier in the session the legislative council had carried a similar motion by forty-five to fifteen. A mission, consisting of Macdonald, Brown, Cartier and Galt, was immediately sent to England to confer with Her Majesty's government upon the following subjects:—

1. Upon the proposed Confederation of the British North American provinces, and the means whereby it can be most speedily effected.

2. Upon the arrangements necessary for the defence of Canada in the event of war arising with the United States, and the extent to which the

HOME GOVERNMENT APPROVAL

same should be shared between Great Britain and Canada.

3. Upon the steps to be taken with reference to the reciprocity treaty, and the rights conferred by it upon the United States.

4. Upon the arrangements necessary for the settlement of the North-West Territory and Hudson's Bay Company's claims.

5. And generally upon the existing critical state of affairs by which Canada is most seriously affected.

The home government, which was growing weary of protecting a scattered fringe of colonies along the American frontier, was eager for Confederation. "Our scheme has given prodigious satisfaction here" wrote Brown. "The ministry, the Conservatives, and the Manchester men are all delighted with it, and everything Canadian has gone up in public estimation immensely." Indeed the measure might never have been carried but for the pressure exerted by the home authorities. To Lord Monck was largely due the entrance of George Brown into the coalition ministry. "The means used and the influence exerted were such only as he was justified in exerting in a great crisis," writes Mr. Brown's biographer and confidant. In New Brunswick the lieutenant-governor, Mr. Arthur Hamilton Gordon (now Lord Stanmore) had been at first opposed to Confederation, and is believed to have encouraged its op-

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ponents in the election of 1865. A visit to England and communications with Mr. Cardwell, the colonial secretary, altered his opinion, and in 1866 he exerted himself with such effect that as the result of some rather arbitrary conduct he was enabled to form a pro-Confederation ministry, which on appealing to the people was sustained by a large majority.

In Nova Scotia, Sir Fenwick Williams, though less active, heartily coöperated with Dr. Tupper, and early in 1866 the administration, while compelled to throw overboard the Quebec resolutions, passed a motion authorizing the appointment of delegates "to arrange with the imperial government a scheme of union which will effectively ensure just provision for the rights and interests of the province."

Meanwhile, in Upper Canada, the death of Sir E. P. Taché, in July, 1865, had momentarily imperilled the coalition. Lord Monck called on Macdonald, as senior member of the cabinet, to form a ministry. This he endeavoured to do, but while George Brown had consented to be on an equality with his rival under the mild control of Taché, he had no mind to serve under him, and threatened to withdraw from the ministry. Rather than imperil their union, Macdonald waived his personal feelings, and suggested Cartier. To him also Brown objected, and a compromise was finally made by the formation of a government in which

GEORGE BROWN RESIGNS

Brown and Macdonald sat as equals under the nominal presidency of Sir Narcisse Belleau, a prominent member of the legislative council. But even under Taché, Macdonald's ability had made him the real head and under Sir Narcisse Belleau the friction was even more transparent. Brown found his position unendurable, and early in December resigned from the cabinet. His ostensible motive was a difference with his colleagues on the question of reciprocity with the United States; but while this difference really existed, and was something more than a mere cloak for his action, his chief reason was undoubtedly a sense of the falsity of his position. While resuming in private life and in the columns of the *Globe* an attitude of hostility to Macdonald, he continued to give a loyal support to the project of Confederation.

By the end of June, 1866, the changed aspect of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick rendered further progress possible. The Canadian parliament, in which action had been delayed from fear of arousing the suspicions of the Maritime Provinces, was summoned, and passed resolutions providing for the local legislatures of Upper and Lower Canada. This necessary delay offended the Irish impetuosity of Lord Monck. "I have come to the deliberate conviction," he wrote to Macdonald, "that if from any cause this session of parliament shall be allowed to pass without the completion of our portion of the union scheme, a crisis in my

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career will have been reached, and that my sense of duty to the people of Canada and to myself leave me no alternative except to apply for my immediate recall." It is noteworthy that this letter was sent, not to the premier, but to Macdonald. His answer, at once courteous and firm, is too long to quote in full, but two paragraphs may be given.

"With respect to the best mode of guiding the measure through the House, I think I must ask your Excellency to leave something to my Canadian parliamentary experience. As leader of the House I am responsible for the successful conduct of government measures, and I can assure you that I have the best means of knowing that it is important that the principle (at all events) of the financial measures of the government should be submitted to parliament, and receive its sanction before there is any serious debate on the local constitutions.

"As to the personal portion of your note, all I can say, as a sincere friend of your Excellency, is that you must take no such step as you indicate. To you belongs, as having initiated, encouraged, and I may now almost say completed, the great scheme of union, all the *kudos* and all the position, (not lightly to be thrown away) which must result from being the founder of a nation."

This reply relieved the anxiety of His Excellency, and in due time the local constitutions were successfully guided through the House. Meanwhile

CONFERENCE AT WESTMINSTER

a change of ministry in England, and the adjournment of the imperial parliament caused further delay, but in November the various delegates met in London, and on the fourth of December began the conference which was to evolve the British North America Act. It must be remembered that the Canadas alone had approved of the Quebec resolutions. Nova Scotia had merely passed the short general statement already quoted, and its example had been followed by New Brunswick. But Macdonald resolved at all costs to hold to the results of the conference which he had so largely inspired, and he was willing to take all risks. Behind the smiling good-humour and readiness to compromise on non-essentials was concealed a dogged determination to gain the great object he had in view. A letter to Mr. Tilley, in which he opposes the wish of the delegates from Nova Scotia to begin deliberations in October, brings out this fact in the characteristic way.

“It appears to us to be important that the bill should not be finally settled until just before the meeting of the British parliament. The measure must be carried *per saltum* and no echo of it must reverberate through the British provinces until it becomes law. If the delegation had been complete in England, and they had prepared the measure in August last, it would have been impossible to keep its provisions secret until next January. There will be few important clauses in the measure

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that will not offend some interest or individual, and its publication would excite a new and fierce agitation on this side of the Atlantic. Even Canada, which has hitherto been nearly a unit on the subject of Confederation, would be stirred to its depths if any material alteration were made. The Act once passed and beyond remedy, the people would soon learn to be reconciled to it."

From the 4th to the 24th of December the conference sat in London, at the Westminster Palace Hotel, and a series of sixty-nine resolutions were finally passed, based on those of the Quebec conference. It was an anxious time for Macdonald, and all his patience and resourcefulness were taxed. Sir F. Rogers (afterwards Lord Blachford), who was at the time permanent under-secretary for the colonies, has left a striking description of his wariness and skill. He says :—

"It was under Mr. Cardwell's rule that the project was matured ; but it was during Lord Carnarvon's secretaryship that the deputation arrived. They held many meetings at which I was always present, Lord Carnarvon was in the chair, and I was rather disappointed in his power of presidency. Macdonald was the ruling genius and spokesman, and I was greatly struck by his power of management and adroitness. The French delegates were keenly on the watch for anything that weakened their securities ; on the contrary,

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the Nova Scotia and New Brunswick delegates were very jealous of concession to the *arrière* province; while one main stipulation in favour of the French was open to constitutional objections on the part of the home government. Macdonald had to argue the question with the home government on a point on which the slightest divergence from the narrow line already agreed on in Canada was watched for—here by the French, and there by the English—as eager dogs watch a rat hole; a snap on one side might have provoked a snap on the other, and put an end to the concord. He stated and argued the case with cool, ready fluency, while at the same time you saw that every word was measured, and that while he was making for a point ahead, he was never for a moment unconscious of the rocks among which he had to steer.”

Early in January the sittings of the conference were resumed, and a series of draft bills drawn up, which were revised by the imperial law officers. In February the completed bill was submitted to the House, and on March 29th received the royal assent, under the title of the “British North America Act, 1867.” On the twenty-second of May a royal proclamation was issued at Windsor Castle, appointing the first of July as the date upon which it should come into force, and this last date has ever since been regarded as the birthday of the Dominion of Canada.

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Great as had been his success in the Confederation negotiations, a success which won for him the imperial title of Knight Commander of the Bath, Macdonald was not wholly satisfied. The cause of his discontent he has himself stated in a letter written in 1889 to Lord Knutsford.

“A great opportunity was lost in 1867, when the Dominion was formed out of the several provinces. This remarkable event in the history of the British empire passed almost without notice. The new Confederation had, at the time of the union, about the same population as the thirteen colonies when they rebelled and formed a nation imbued with the bitterest feelings of hostility towards England—feelings, which, by the way, exist in as offensive a form now as they did on the day of the declaration of independence. The declaration of all the British North American provinces, that they desired as one Dominion to remain a portion of the empire, showed what wise government and generous treatment would do, and should have marked an epoch in the history of England. This would probably have been the case had Lord Carnarvon, who as colonial minister had sat at the cradle of the new Dominion, remained in office. His ill-omened resignation was followed by the appointment of the late Duke of Buckingham, who had as his adviser the then governor-general, Lord Monck, both good men, certainly, but quite unable, from the

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constitution of their minds, to rise to the occasion. The union was treated by them much as if the British North America Act were a private bill unifying two or three English parishes. Had a different course been pursued—for instance, had United Canada been declared to be an auxiliary kingdom, as it was in the Canadian draft of the bill,—I feel sure (almost) that the Australian colonies would, ere this, have been applying to be placed in the same rank as ‘The Kingdom of Canada.’” He adds in a postscript: “On reading the above over, I see that it will convey the impression that the change of title from Kingdom to Dominion was caused by the Duke of Buckingham. This is not so. It was made at the instance of Lord Derby, then foreign minister, who feared the name would wound the sensibilities of the Yankees.”

On July 1st the new Dominion came into being. Ontario was jubilant, Quebec doubtful and expectant, New Brunswick sullen, Nova Scotia rebellious. Many of the newspapers in the Maritime Provinces came out that day with their columns draped in black. Confederation had been carried, but the problem remained of holding it together. All the ingenuity of Macdonald, all the firmness of the colonial office were to be sorely tried before the ship of state was steered safely out of reach of shoals and breakers.

CHAPTER VII

FIRST PRIME MINISTER OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA

1867 TO 1872

THE course of events leading up to Confederation and the unquestioned leadership displayed by Macdonald in the conferences at Quebec and Westminster had distinctly marked him out as the one man to whom the task of inaugurating the machinery of Confederation should be entrusted. Public expectation in this regard was soon realized, and on March 21st, 1867, he writes from London to his sister in Canada that Lord Monck, who was then in England, had charged him with the formation of a government.

Meanwhile, a month earlier, his private outlook on life had been greatly changed by his marriage to Miss Bernard, a daughter of the Hon. Thomas J. Bernard, of the Jamaica privy council. The wedding took place on February sixteenth, at St. George's, Hanover Square, London. The circumstances of his life gave this event a peculiar significance. The prolonged illness of his first wife, her death in 1858, and the long periods of necessary residence at the various seats of government away from his Kingston home, had up to this time left

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him without that atmosphere of domestic comfort and care which means so much in the lives of men absorbed in public affairs. The circumstances may in a measure account for a lack of self-control in his personal habits which marked this earlier part of his life, and furnished to his opponents a weapon of which they were not slow to avail themselves. Henceforward his political career and private life were alike deeply influenced by one whose vigorous and masculine intellect eminently fitted her to share in the toils and sympathize with the ambitions of a strenuous public life. The newly married couple were soon after presented at court, the queen on this occasion granting a special audience to Macdonald and his four principal associates in the conference in recognition of the significance of the work they had just accomplished. Macdonald records his own reply to a remark of Her Majesty in regard to the importance of the work and the loyal spirit in which the deliberations had been carried on. "We have desired in this measure to declare in the most solemn and emphatic manner our resolve to be under the sovereignty of Your Majesty and Your Majesty's family forever."

Early in the month of May, Macdonald returned to Canada, and began the critical business of setting in motion the governmental system created by the Act of Confederation. It will be seen that he had been very singularly prepared for the

FIRST DOMINION CABINET

larger work to be taken upon his shoulders. More than twenty years of experience in provincial legislation had given him an unrivalled knowledge of parliamentary tactics and consummate skill in carrying through the business of a popular assembly. His natural quickness of perception in measuring the character and capacity of those with whom he had to deal had been sharpened by the years of keen struggle to maintain against heavy odds the position and influence of his party. The manipulation of men with whom he had little personal sympathy, but who had to be reckoned with in the government of a country including in its population the most diverse elements, had become with him a second nature. He had learned to find the implements of his purposes in the passions, prejudices, even the weaknesses of men, no less than in their higher qualities of mind and character.

In the formation of his first cabinet Macdonald was confronted by great difficulties. The newly united provinces insisted on the application of the federal principle in the distribution of federal offices, and it was finally decided that Ontario was entitled to five representatives, Quebec to four and the Maritime Provinces to two each. This, however, disposed of one difficulty only. The Irish Catholics insisted on having a representative. So did the English Protestant minority of the province of Quebec. In Ontario the Liberals claimed

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three of the five members ; in Quebec the Conservatives demanded all four. The necessity for satisfying so many local and religious interests led, as often in Canada, to the omission from the cabinet of men whom a wider principle of selection would have included, but Macdonald had to do his best with the material at his disposal and the parties to be conciliated. As finally chosen the cabinet was made up as follows :—

The Hon. John Alexander Macdonald—minister of justice and attorney-general.

The Hon. Georges Etienne Cartier—minister of militia and defence.

The Hon. Alexander Tilloch Galt—minister of finance.

The Hon. Alexander Campbell—postmaster-general.

The Hon. Jean Charles Chapais—minister of agriculture.

The Hon. Hector Louis Langevin—secretary of state for Canada.

The Hon. Edward Kenny—receiver-general.

The Hon. William MacDougall—minister of public works.

The Hon. William Pearce Howland—minister of inland revenue.

The Hon. Adam Johnston Fergusson Blair—president of the privy council.

The Hon. Samuel Leonard Tilley—minister of customs.

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The Hon. Peter Mitchell—minister of marine and fisheries.

The Hon. Adams George Archibald—secretary of state for the provinces.

It was a coalition administration, Conservatives and Reformers being about equally represented. As previously agreed upon, five of its members represented Ontario, and four Quebec, while Nova Scotia and New Brunswick contributed two each. Seven belonged to the Conservative party, and six had been Liberals. Mr. Kenny represented the Irish Catholics and Mr. Galt the English-speaking minority in Quebec. "I do not want it to be felt by any section in the country," Macdonald said, "that they have no representative in the cabinet and no influence in the government, . . . I desire to ask those who were in favour of this system of government, and who wished to see it satisfactorily carried out."

Such a cabinet proved, like all coalitions, extremely difficult to manage. The distribution of patronage, always carried out in Canada on strictly party lines, was a cause of endless trouble. Accusations of treachery from old Conservative friends, of perfidy to the compact from Liberals, soon began to reach the premier. "It is rather hard on me," writes Sir John two or three years later, "that I should be pitched into by Mr. MacDougall for not taking care of the Reformers, and, at the same time, be grumbled at by my own

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party for giving everything to that portion of Her Majesty's liege subjects in Ontario."

There were other difficulties of a more personal nature. Galt, whose reflective and independent temper had always made him an unsatisfactory party man, resigned towards the end of 1867 for some reason never fully explained, and was succeeded by Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Rose. He too, was for private reasons compelled to resign a year later, and Macdonald was much perplexed to find a successor.

Just at this time Sir Francis Hincks returned to Canada, which he had not seen since 1854, having in the meantime filled imperial offices in several colonies. Like Sandfield Macdonald, he was an old Reformer, but at open enmity with George Brown. His former triumphs as inspector-general were remembered, and he was at once given the vacant portfolio. He made an efficient finance minister, but his long absence had put him out of touch with the men and with the ideals of the new Dominion, and the appointment did not fulfil Sir John's hopes of securing a leader in Ontario fearless and energetic enough to confront George Brown.

The formation of the government was the signal for a determined attempt on the part of the latter, and those of his party who sympathized with him, to break up the coalition. The Liberal leader claimed that, Confederation having been

COALITION MAINTAINED

achieved, the compact made to carry it was at an end. Macdonald held that the task of setting in motion the new machinery of government was the most important part of the whole business, and that till this was done patriotic duty pointed to the maintenance of the coalition. With this view the other Reform members of the cabinet from Ontario, MacDougall and Howland, agreed; and on the same principle Fergusson Blair, also a Reformer, had some months before accepted the place of Mr. Brown as president of the council. All three had now taken office in the new Dominion administration. George Brown denounced their course as political treason, and Macdonald's attitude as merely a clever device for keeping himself in power. MacDougall and Howland defended the position they had taken before a large Reform convention called in June, 1867, to consider this and other party questions. The convention decided against them and against the continuance of the coalition, but the ministers remained firm, and in the first general election for the Dominion parliament which came on soon after, they received the approval of their constituents, while Brown was defeated. The general result was a large majority for the new government.

It cannot be doubted that keen personal rivalry between the two leaders was a large factor in the controversy. George Brown found it impossible to serve under, and very difficult to act with, Mac-

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donald. The result was that the country was deprived of his services in the first parliament of that Confederation for securing which he had made such considerable sacrifices of personal and party feeling. While continuing, as a journalist, to take an active part in all political discussions, he did not again seek a seat in the popular branch of the legislature, although he accepted an appointment to the senate from the Mackenzie administration in 1874.

While the party which Macdonald led took the name of Liberal-Conservative to mark its mixed composition, it is scarcely surprising, after this action of the Reformers, to find his cabinet taking a more Conservative complexion as necessary changes were made. Within three years after Confederation, Fergusson Blair was dead; the career of William MacDougall had ended somewhat unsatisfactorily in connection with his efforts to fulfil the mission assigned to him in 1868 as lieutenant-governor of Manitoba; Howland and Archibald had passed into honourable retirement as lieutenant-governors of Ontario and Manitoba; Tilley and Mitchell, formerly Liberals, had yielded to the large national ideals and personal fascination of Sir John, and were among the most loyal and efficient of his colleagues. Of the later appointments, Howe, who might once have counted as a great Liberal force in any cabinet, was broken in health, and by taking office had lost his old popularity; while Dr.

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Tupper, the Conservative leader in Nova Scotia, who joined the cabinet in 1870, soon became recognized, by right of energy and ability, as Macdonald's first lieutenant. Meanwhile in these first years Macdonald's own leadership was unquestioned. During the early days of Confederation, no statesman from New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, however brilliant, could have aspired to the premiership, nor indeed could a French-Canadian have hoped for this supreme prize of political life. In later years two premiers and a leader of Opposition taken from Nova Scotia; a French-Canadian premier holding the first place in parliament and the unquestioned leadership of one of the parties in the State for many years, bear eloquent testimony to the influence of Confederation in obliterating alike provincial and racial lines of distinction. They furnish the best evidence of the genuineness of the national bond created by the British North America Act.

While Macdonald cannot be absolved from the charge of having manipulated the coalition cabinet of 1867 in favour of his earlier political associates, and indeed may fairly be excused for doing so, no prime minister was ever more free from that fear of able colleagues which has been so often displayed by political leaders from Walpole onwards.

Subject to the restrictions entailed by the federal nature of the cabinet, he always sought to gather round him the ablest men of his own party.

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If complaints were made, he sometimes replied, "Give me better wood and I will make you a better cabinet ;" and he was quick to recognize and encourage rising ability. Not the least striking testimony to his genius is the loyal service given him by men of the imperious will of Sir Charles Tupper and Peter Mitchell, of the organizing ability and great local influence of Sir Hector Langevin, of the unimpeachable integrity of Sir Alexander Campbell and Sir Leonard Tilley.

The Dominion had its birthday on July 1st, 1867 ; the first general election to the new parliament took place during August and September with the result above noted. No weighty opposition to Macdonald's cabinet had yet been organized.

George Brown's impulsive acceptance of office in 1864, and his still more impulsive withdrawal at the end of the next year, placed the Liberal party in Ontario in a very awkward position. They stood committed to Confederation, and had three representatives in the government which their leader now called upon them to oppose. To the argument that the coalition had been formed for a definite purpose, on the attainment of which it was, *ipso facto*, dissolved, Macdonald's reply that the object was not achieved until the new machine had been made to work seemed conclusive, and appealed to the common sense of the electorate. Thus when the first session of parliament of the Dominion of

RESULTS OF ELECTION

Canada met on November 6th, 1867, an Opposition could hardly be said to exist.

Ontario had returned only fifteen opponents of the government out of eighty-two ; Quebec twelve out of sixty-five ; New Brunswick three out of fifteen. Nova Scotia had indeed been swept for repeal, and of its nineteen members Dr. Charles Tupper, representing the county of Cumberland, alone supported the government. But the other eighteen refused to coalesce with the Opposition from Ontario and Quebec. The premier was to have many difficulties and discouragements in his task of getting the new Dominion under way, but he had the great advantage of a large majority, and as he himself said "of a clean slate." In the organization of the provincial governments he showed great judgment and skill.

No one has ever disputed Sir John Macdonald's knowledge of men, but even he never did anything more clever than in putting John Sandfield Macdonald at the head of the local government in the province of Ontario, and P. J. O. Chauveau in the same position in Quebec. In Ontario the great question of representation by population had been settled by the British North America Act, and the chief desire of the province was for honest and economical administration. This, Sandfield Macdonald was eminently fitted to give. A Scottish Catholic, he was usually at issue with the priesthood on the question of separate schools ; a Liberal,

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his stubborn will and glib tongue had brought him into sharp conflict with George Brown ; his Scottish caution and dislike for theorists had led him to oppose Confederation, but he was essentially a practical man, and in the presence of its successful accomplishment felt no desire to sulk in his tent, or to endeavour to undo the results attained. For four years he gave to Ontario an honest, economical and not unprogressive administration, which more and more assumed a (politically) conservative character.

In the face of Cartier and the Catholic clergy, Dorion had for a moment come near to swaying the people of Quebec with the argument that Confederation was a plot of their Protestant foes to anglicize and americanize the province, to break the triple bond of "*Notre langue, notre religion, nos lois.*" To this the appointment of a burning "*patriote*" like Chauveau, the friend and former follower of Papineau, but now one of the staunchest upholders of Catholicism as well as of the best literary and social traditions of French Canada, was the most effective reply. With Chauveau at Quebec and Cartier at Ottawa the *habitant* felt his fears subside.

In Nova Scotia alone was the Opposition triumphant. Joseph Howe with his magnificent oratory swept the province for repeal. The old mistrust of Canada rose to white heat, and even to-day it is impossible not to acknowledge the force of the plea

NOVA SCOTIA AND REPEAL

that so all-important a change in the constitution should have been submitted directly to the people. Of the nineteen members sent to Ottawa, eighteen were pledged to support repeal, as were thirty-six out of thirty-eight members of the local assembly. This latter body passed an address to Her Majesty praying her not to "reduce this free, happy, and hitherto self-governing province to the degraded condition of a servile dependency of Canada," and a delegation headed by Howe was sent to London to lay their petition at the foot of the throne.

From the early stages of this struggle Sir John wisely held aloof. The fever had to run its course, and any outside interference might have been fatal. Yet assured though he was of the sympathy of the British government, and of the unlikelihood of its reopening the question, he felt that Howe's mission must not be unchallenged. To send a member of the cabinet to counteract his influence would have been unwise, as seeming to imply that the Canadian government considered repeal a subject for discussion. But Dr. Tupper, Howe's old and most powerful opponent in Nova Scotia, who had patriotically waived his own claims to cabinet position in order to solve Macdonald's difficulties in balancing interests, was sent to confront him on the wider field. Both fought magnificently, but Howe's struggle, notwithstanding that he enlisted in his favour the eloquence of John Bright, was from the first hopeless.

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An interview in London between the two men, in which Tupper pointed out the hopelessness of the task Howe had in hand, the ruin that would be brought by continued agitation to national ideals which both had cherished, and his own determination to fight out the contest to the bitter end, closing with an appeal to Howe's patriotism, was a dramatic episode in the discussion, and probably did much to open the eyes of the great tribune of the people to the gravity of the situation and to shake his resolve. He returned to report to his fellow Nova Scotians that for any movement tending to break up the Confederation they could not rely upon British sympathy. The attitude of the British government had convinced Howe that the question was closed, and he was far too loyal an imperialist to adopt the cry for annexation which was soon raised by the baser sort of Nova Scotian politicians.

Now was the time for Sir John Macdonald. He at once determined to win over Howe to Confederation, and towards the close of July, 1868, visited Halifax for that purpose, accompanied by Cartier, William MacDougall, Tupper, and John Sandfield Macdonald, the latter an intimate friend of Howe. For the Conservative premier of the new Dominion to bring with him an anti-Confederation Liberal to aid in enticing Howe within the Confederate fold was a masterpiece of political strategy. The interview between the two states-

NOVA SCOTIA'S GRIEVANCE

men cleared the way, and was followed up by a correspondence, printed in full by Mr. Pope, which strikingly illustrates Macdonald's diplomatic skill in conducting a delicate negotiation. Nova Scotia's most tangible grievance was financial, and this Macdonald promised to deal with "not in a rigid but in the most liberal spirit." The situation was urgent. Howe reported a widespread feeling in favour of annexation to the United States, "and the visit of a prominent American politician for the purpose, scarcely disguised, of encouraging the annexation feeling with offers of men and money."

If an additional grant could save the new born Dominion from disintegration it was no time for haggling. "Better terms" were promptly conceded by order-in-council on January 25th, 1869, and five days later Joseph Howe entered the Dominion cabinet. The local government endeavoured for a time to maintain the agitation against Confederation which had brought them into power, and things were said on the floors of the assembly which verged on disloyalty. Bereft of its leader, however, the agitation soon died away, and after the general election of 1872, only one antagonist of Macdonald and Howe was returned.

The strength of provincialism with which the idea of Confederation had been confronted in Nova Scotia inclined Macdonald to use great caution in his further efforts to "round off" the Dominion by drawing in the other Maritime Provinces. The

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smaller the community the more strongly entrenched seemed to be the provincial spirit. Newfoundland had been represented at the Quebec conference, but its delegates refused to commit themselves to the union. The negotiations then broken off were renewed in 1868, and in the following year a delegation from the island visited Ottawa, when Macdonald succeeded in arranging what seemed to be satisfactory terms of entrance into the Dominion. They were, however, decisively rejected on being submitted to the electors of the island a few months later. A proposal to add Newfoundland to the Dominion by an Act of the imperial parliament he refused to encourage. "There can be no doubt of the power to do so," he says in a letter to the governor-general, "but the exercise of it would seem to me very unadvisable. We have had an infinity of trouble with Nova Scotia, although both the government and the legislature agreed to the union, because the question was not submitted to the electors. We have at a large cost settled that difficulty. The case would be much worse in Newfoundland, where there was a dissolution and an appeal to the people for the express purpose of getting their deliberate opinion for or against the union. They have decided for the present against it, and I think we should accept their decision." But he regretted the result of the election as postponing the completion of the imperial policy of uniting all the British North American possessions

CONFEDERATION OPPOSED

under one government, and he looked forward to the "inevitable reaction that must take place in a year or two."

In this he failed to gauge accurately the tenacity of insular sentiment which has kept the "ancient colony" apart from the Dominion for forty years, in spite of the manifest advantages, both from a local and a national point of view, that would flow from union. While he attached no vital importance to the refusal of Newfoundland in 1868, it can scarcely be believed that, had he been alive in 1893, he would have missed the opportunity then offered of adding the island to the Dominion for the sake of the half-million or million dollars which blocked an agreement.

Opposition almost as vehement presented itself in Prince Edward Island. The electors had decisively rejected the proposals of the Quebec conference in 1865, formally declaring that such a union as was suggested "would prove politically, commercially and financially disastrous to the rights and interests of the people." The same opinion was reiterated still more vigorously in the following year, when the legislature declared by resolution that no terms Canada could offer would be acceptable. The overwhelming nature of the opposition to Confederation at this time may be inferred from the fact that only ninety-four electors in the whole island could be found to sign an address of thanks to the seven members of the

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legislature who supported the scheme. The colony was therefore not represented at the Westminster conference which finally settled the terms of the British North America Act. This rejection of Confederation seemed to Macdonald a much more serious matter than that of Newfoundland. He writes to the governor-general in December, 1869, in the letter last quoted : " Canada is more directly interested in the immediate acquisition of Prince Edward Island, from its proximity to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the extent of its fisheries. Neither the imperial government nor Canada can carry out satisfactorily any policy in the matter of the fisheries under present circumstances, and most unpleasant complications with the American fishermen may ensue. It will, besides, become a rendezvous for smugglers, and, in fact, be as great a nuisance to us as the Isle of Man was in the days of old to England, before its purchase from the Duke of Athol. We must endeavour to get Her Majesty's government to help us as much as possible in our attempts to conciliate the islanders, of which, I am glad to say, there is now good hope."

" Better terms " had been offered in 1866 and again in 1869, but the proposals were ignored or rejected. It was not till 1872 that the financial necessities of the island, which had become involved in heavy railway expenditure, led the electors to realize the advantages of union with the

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Dominion. Negotiations followed which ended in the assumption of the railway debt by Canada, and the entrance of the island into the Dominion in the following year.

If caution marked the negotiations with Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, boldness, almost to the verge of audacity, characterized those by which British Columbia was induced to join the Confederation. The acquisition of a frontage on the Pacific and of the vast country lying between the Great Lakes and the Rockies was essential to the future of the Dominion. The officers of the Hudson's Bay Company, who still retained great influence in the colony, were opposed to the entrance of British Columbia into the Confederation, as they were to the accession of the North-West. The British governor of the colony was also hostile, and a party had actually been formed to promote annexation to the United States. But when the North-West was transferred in 1870 the opposition of the Hudson's Bay officials ceased, and on the death of Governor Seymour, a successor, Sir Antony Musgrave, known to be favourable to Confederation, was, on Macdonald's suggestion, appointed by the imperial government, which used all its influence to forward the work of union.

The chief item in the terms agreed upon was that "the government of the Dominion undertake to secure the commencement simultaneously,

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within two years from the date of the union, of the construction of a railway from the Pacific towards the Rocky Mountains, and from such point as may be selected east of the Rocky Mountains, towards the Pacific, to connect the sea-board of British Columbia with the railway system of Canada; and further to secure the completion of such railway within ten years of the date of the union." At a general election held in the autumn of 1870 the people of British Columbia approved of the terms of the union, and the colony became a province of the Dominion on July 20th, 1871.

The compact thus made with the province for the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway, denounced by opponents as ruinous and impossible, but proved by subsequent events to be not only within the fair limits of practicability, but also the mainspring of Canadian development and prosperity, became for the next fifteen years the pivot of Canadian politics.

Meanwhile the early sessions of parliament were chiefly taken up with questions of administration and organization. On these matters the Opposition, led by Alexander Mackenzie, who had been chosen as leader in succession to George Brown, refrained almost entirely from mere factious disputation. The acrimonious personal disputes of pre-Confederation debates were no more heard. Both parties endeavoured to rise to the level of their new opportunities, and more than one suggestion from

ORGANIZATION

the opposition side of the House was adopted by the government.

In 1867 the postal rates were reduced and unified, and a system of post-office savings banks introduced. In 1868 the militia of the Dominion was organized, the tariff altered and systematized, and an Act passed to secure the independence of parliament, as well as a Civil Service Act. A series of Acts culminating in 1871, put the banking system of the country on a sound footing. From 1868 to 1870 Sir John gradually shaped a bill to establish a Supreme Court for Canada, but circumstances prevented him from passing this measure, and the court was not finally organized till 1875 under the administration of Alexander Mackenzie.

Thus gradually the new machine was put into operation. Larger measures, in which a difference of policy was possible, soon came forward and the Opposition began to gain coherency. Among the most important of these measures was that relating to the Intercolonial Railway. Section 145 of the British North America Act had stated that "it shall be the duty of the government and parliament of Canada to provide for the commencement, within six months after the union, of a railway connecting the river St. Lawrence with the city of Halifax." The government pushed on the work of surveying with much energy, and during the first session Macdonald announced that the road would be built "under the direct supervision of com-

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missioners appointed by the government, for whose conduct the administration would hold itself responsible to parliament." This method of management was opposed by Dorion, who moved an amendment that the location of the line should not be settled without the consent of parliament. This was opposed by Sir John, on the ground that such procedure would imperil the financial guarantee which had been given under certain conditions by the imperial authorities, and the first trial of strength ended in a vote of eighty-three to thirty-five in favour of the government.

The selection of the route through New Brunswick was not made without difficulty. The folly of Lord Palmerston in 1833-5, in refusing the extremely reasonable terms offered by President Jackson, and the timidity of Lord Ashburton in the treaty negotiations of 1842 had given to the United States a wedge of territory thrust up far to northward between New Brunswick and Quebec. A direct route from east to west was thus impossible. Three alternative lines were finally surveyed, one by the valley of the St. John River, known, owing to its nearness to the American boundary, as the frontier route; a second along the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Baie des Chaleurs; and a third or central route directly across New Brunswick. The strained relations existing between Great Britain and the United States, and the unwillingness of the former to assist

THE INTERCOLONIAL RAILWAY

in the construction of any but a military line, put the first and most direct line out of the question. The second was supported by Sir Georges Cartier and Peter Mitchell, in the interest of the lower counties of Quebec and the north shore counties of New Brunswick ; the third by Sir Leonard Tilley, William MacDougall and other ministers, as giving the most direct and least expensive route from the upper province to the sea. From a commercial point of view the central route was unquestionably the best. The imperial authorities approved of the northern route, owing to its greater distance from the American frontier. A report in its favour, balancing military and inter-provincial considerations, was obtained from Mr. (afterwards Sir Sandford) Fleming, the engineer in charge, and it was finally adopted. The struggle over the question within the cabinet was very keen, and Macdonald found himself at once on the verge of a ministerial crisis.

In 1870 a quarrel between William MacDougall and Joseph Howe, growing out of the former's disappointment in the matter of the government of the North-West, led to the publication by MacDougall of a series of open letters, in which he affirmed that Sir Georges Cartier and Peter Mitchell forced Macdonald to agree to the selection of the longer route for the Intercolonial as the price of their consent to the acquisition of the western country. He claimed that by this surrender it became

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necessary to construct one hundred and thirty-eight additional miles of railway, to abandon the natural commercial route, to impose upon the country for all time the burden of this unnecessary mileage, and to injure permanently the Intercolonial as a medium of interprovincial traffic. In MacDougall's own words, "they threw eight millions of dollars into the sea." He was at the time a disappointed and embittered man, but there was probably a measure of truth in his allegations. The whole affair shows the inevitable difficulties which beset a premier in Macdonald's position, and the compromises to which he is driven.

Macdonald's final justification for the course taken must lie in the conditions imposed by the imperial government which gave the guarantee for the money required, and which at the time believed that the military necessity was a real one. Fortunately there has been no need to test the value of the railway in this respect, and other lines built for purely commercial ends now connect the upper provinces with the sea. The construction of the Intercolonial carried out one of the compacts on which Confederation was based, and though, under government control, it has not proved altogether a commercial success, it has had a most important influence in consolidating the Dominion.

The choice of the northern route, however, and the extravagance involved in its construction, gave to the Opposition their first definite plan of attack

THE NORTH-WEST

in the adoption of a platform of economy. This was carried further in 1869 in their objection to the "better terms" granted to Nova Scotia, which they also opposed on constitutional grounds, an indication of the strict and even narrow adherence to the constitution which was for many years to characterize them. Their third great principle, the maintenance of provincial rights, appeared in the discussion of the troubles which broke out in the Red River Settlement.

If Canada and the Maritime Provinces knew but little of each other, and felt the necessity of the iron link of the Intercolonial, they knew still less of the great West on whose acquisition depended the future of the Dominion. When, in 1868, the Red River Settlement was overwhelmed by a plague of grasshoppers, and collections were made for the sufferers, Principal George M. Grant, then a leading clergyman of Halifax, wrote, "I could have collected the money quite as easily, and the givers would have given quite as intelligently, had the sufferers been in Central Abyssinia." Yet there were not wanting statesmen with the eye of faith to look into the future, and George Brown and Sir John Macdonald were at one in feeling that the great heritage so long monopolized by the Hudson's Bay Company must belong to Canada, and that half a continent was too large a preserve for the scattered agents of a trading company and a few thousands of Indians.

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To conceive so vast a project as the annexation of a territory more than seven times as large as the four federated provinces, showed the high courage to which nothing is impossible ; on the other hand the details of the annexation present a series of the gravest errors, only partially excused by the absolute ignorance at Ottawa of the situation. Admitting that the greater part of the blame falls on MacDougall and Cartier, it is impossible, nevertheless, wholly to acquit Macdonald of inattention in the earlier stages of the business.

Till Confederation the discussion of the surrender of this monopoly by the company had hardly proceeded beyond the academic stage. The new Dominion took the matter up with vigour. Provision for the acquisition of the North-West Territories was inserted in the British North America Act (section 146) and on December 4th, 1867, a series of resolutions was introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. MacDougall, and an address to the queen based upon them was passed, praying her to unite these portions of her empire to Canada. On October 3rd, 1868, Sir Georges Cartier and Mr. MacDougall were sent to London to negotiate. After prolonged discussions and much delay, with the help of the colonial secretary, Lord Granville, an excellent bargain was made for Canada. The Hudson's Bay Company agreed to transfer to the Crown their exclusive rights to the North-West Territories and

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Rupert's Land, in consideration of the sum of £300,000, the reservation of one-twentieth of the fertile belt and a certain area adjacent to each of their trading-posts. The vast area ceded was inhabited almost solely by scattered tribes of Indians, and by the officials of the company. But in the vicinity of the trading-post of Fort Garry, at the confluence of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, where now stands the city of Winnipeg, dwelt a population of about ten thousand persons, known as the Red River Settlement. Of this little community the majority were half-breeds or *métis*, the descendants of Scottish and French trappers and Indian mothers. They had lived quietly and contentedly under the easy lordship of the Hudson's Bay Company, and now viewed with great alarm and excitement the prospect of their transfer, without their consent, to the Dominion.

As if to increase their irritation, the Canadian government, in 1869, undertook the construction of a road between the Lake of the Woods and Red River, and sent a surveying party under an indiscreet militia officer into the settlement itself. The Hudson's Bay Company officials in London protested to the Canadian delegates against these unauthorized proceedings in a district still in their possession, but could get no satisfaction. Monseigneur Taché, the Roman Catholic bishop of the district and the idol of the half-breeds, on his way to the Vatican council turned aside to warn Sir

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Georges Cartier of impending trouble and was, so it is said, greeted with a contemptuous laugh.

The domineering, and in some cases dishonest, conduct of the contractor for the road excited still further the ignorant and suspicious *métis*, who set up a provisional government of their own under the leadership of Louis Riel. The situation was complicated by the illness of the company's governor at Fort Garry ; by the absence of Archbishop Taché, whose influence with the half-breeds might have prevented trouble ; and by the presence at Pembina and at St. Paul of an element in the population which openly awaited the opportunity of annexing the new territory to the United States. " A decrepit government with the executive officer sick ; a rebellious and chronically dissatisfied *métis* element ; a government at Ottawa far removed by distance, committing with unvarying regularity blunder after blunder ; a greedy and foreign cabal planning to seize the country, and a secret jesuitical plot to keep the governor from action and to incite the fiery *métis* to revolt ! " is the startling, but perhaps substantially correct, way in which Mr. Bryce in his *Remarkable History of the Hudson's Bay Company* sums up the situation.

Meanwhile the Canadian government had appointed the Hon. William MacDougall lieutenant-governor of the territory which they had not yet taken over. Travelling through the United States, Mr. MacDougall reached the frontier town of Pem-

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bina late in October, 1869. On crossing the border, he was met by an armed force of half-breeds, and forced to retire. On December 1st, under the impression that the formal transfer of territory was to take place on that date, and urged by a number of the British inhabitants, he issued a proclamation declaring himself lieutenant-governor and Colonel Dennis, head of the surveying party, his "lieutenant and conservator of the peace." But Sir John Macdonald had absolutely refused to take over the country save in a state of tranquillity, insisting that the company "stood pledged to convey not only their title but the territory itself." MacDougall's proclamation and the unsuccessful attempts of Dennis to collect an adequate force among the loyal settlers only added to the prevailing anarchy.

Sir John Macdonald's understanding with the lieutenant-governor had been "that he was to go as a private individual to report on the state of affairs at the Red River, but to assume no authority until officially notified from him that Rupert's Land was united to Canada." On this assumption both he and Joseph Howe, the secretary of state for the provinces, had endeavoured to keep in touch with MacDougall; their endeavours, however, were rendered fruitless by his hasty assumption of authority, and the slow and uncertain postal communications of the time.

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Macdonald's position now became most difficult. Whatever the ulterior objects of their leaders, the demands of the settlers were most reasonable, and consisted of little else than a demand for the self-government possessed by other inhabitants of the Dominion. In this request racial and religious sentiment won them the support of the Quebec members of the House and of the cabinet, led by Sir Georges Cartier. Ontario, Protestant and English, was urgent for the restoration of order by a military force. This demand became overwhelming when news arrived that on March 4th, 1870, Riel had, after a mock trial, put to death Thomas Scott, a former resident of Ontario and a member of the Orange order. Even before this Sir John had written to his friend the Hon. John Rose : " The propositions adopted at the Red River conference, are, most of them, reasonable enough, and can easily be disposed of with their delegates. Things look well enough were we only assured of Riel's good faith. But the unpleasant suspicion remains that he is only wasting time by sending this delegation, until the approach of summer enables him to get material help from the United States. It is believed by many that he is in the pay of the U. S.—besides, the longer he remains in power, the more unwilling will he be to resign it, and I have, therefore, no great confidence in his ratifying any arrangements made here with the delegates. Under these circumstances the prepara-

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tions for the expeditionary force must not be delayed."

On receipt of the news of the murder of Scott, preparations for a relief expedition, composed of British regulars and of Canadian militia under the command of Colonel (now Viscount) Wolseley, were hurried on, and early in May, 1870, the little force set out from Collingwood. Meanwhile on May 2nd, a bill for the establishment and government of the province of Manitoba, had been introduced by Macdonald and hurriedly passed through the House. But the long strain had been too great ; and four days later the premier was suddenly prostrated by an attack of illness, pronounced by his physicians to be *biliary calculus*, so sudden and severe that, to use the words of his biographer, "for days he lay between life and death in the room where he was seized, tended by the supreme devotion of a loving wife, who nursed him with a solicitude to which he has repeatedly declared he owed his life." Not until September was he again fit for work.

The leadership of the House devolved on Sir Georges Cartier, who had determined that the "key to the whole province," as he justly termed Manitoba, should be, as far as possible, in French and Catholic hands. He threw every hindrance in the way of Wolseley's expedition, and when it had finally set out, formed a bold plan for sending Monseigneur Taché and Adams G. Archibald, the newly

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appointed successor to MacDougall, through the American territory to the Red River. On their arrival a full amnesty covering the murderers of Scott was to be proclaimed and the new provincial government organized. What course would have been followed by a legislature controlled by Riel, and under a pliable lieutenant-governor, can only be surmised, for the plan leaked out and so furious was the opposition raised throughout Ontario that even Cartier quailed, and Archibald went up by the "snow route" in rear of the punitive expedition. After great difficulties, surmounted by Wolseley with masterly skill, the little force reached Fort Garry on August 24th, and won a bloodless victory, Riel and his followers decamping at the sound of the bugles. From that time the organization of the new province went forward without hindrance.

Riel long remained the storm centre of Canadian politics. In the province of Quebec he was a hero, contending for British rights and French privileges; to Ontario he was a murderer and rebel, and the local legislature offered a reward of five thousand dollars for his apprehension. In 1874 he was elected by the half-breeds to succeed Sir Georges Cartier in the representation of Provencher, but was expelled from the House, outlawed and forced to flee to the United States. He was to return in after years and again disturb the peace of the Dominion.

HIGH COMMISSIONER

During the critical months of 1870, as has been said, Macdonald's guiding hand was withdrawn from the conduct of affairs. So extreme had been his illness that little hope was entertained of his recovery. His return to Ottawa in September was marked by the warmest demonstrations of feeling on the part of the public. During the greater part of the following session of 1871 he was absent in Washington as a member of the high commission. The task imposed upon him there had such a special importance in his career that it must be dealt with in a separate chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

THE WASHINGTON TREATY, 1871

THE outbreak of the war of secession in the United States and the events which marked its progress had, as we have seen, forwarded the work of confederating Canada. The conclusion of that war left questions of great difficulty and delicacy to be settled by the statesmen of Great Britain, the United States and the young Dominion. In this settlement Macdonald was compelled to take a prominent part. Scarcely any other portion of his political career was subjected to more hostile criticism than this; on no other point in his public life was he more confident that the ultimate judgment of history would ratify his conduct and acknowledge the patriotism by which it had been actuated.

Great Britain's largest and most immediate interest in the questions at issue lay in the large claims for damage made against her by the United States on account of the injury inflicted on American trade and shipping by the Southern cruiser *Alabama*, which had been fitted out at a British port, and, it was claimed, had been allowed to escape through lack of the precautions due on the part of a friendly government. The questions which more immediately concerned the Dominion

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were the San Juan boundary dispute on the Pacific coast ; the settlement of claims for damages inflicted on Canada by the Fenian Raids of 1864-5-6, organized and directed from American territory in violation of international law ; and above all the recognition of her exclusive right to the inshore fisheries of all Dominion waters. Intimately, though indirectly, connected with the last question was that of trade relations between the United States and Canada.

The prosperity of the Dominion had been profoundly affected by the change in American trade policy adopted after the war, in order to deal with the vast debt accumulated during its progress. The reciprocity treaty negotiated by Lord Elgin in 1854 had proved of great advantage to Canadian trade ; nor can it be doubted that it had corresponding advantages for the United States. But even if its retention had been possible under the strongly protective system now adopted by that country, the anti-British current of feeling prevalent at the time would probably have determined its abrogation ; and in March, 1866, this was finally effected at the instance of the American government.

With the denunciation of the treaty, the right of American fishermen to pursue their occupations in Canadian waters passed away. Repeated attempts to secure a renewal of reciprocal trade having failed, Canada was now bent on asserting

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her exclusive right to all the inshore fisheries off her coast, which are among the most valuable of her national assets, and had been the chief consideration granted in 1854 in return for commercial reciprocity. American fishermen, on the other hand, showed the greatest reluctance to give up the privileges they had temporarily enjoyed under the treaty; they omitted to take out licences as required by the Dominion government; and the danger of collision between them and the marine force established for fishery protection was constant and great.

The destruction wrought by the *Alabama* had caused much irritation of national feeling in the United States, as had the Fenian raids in Canada. An attempt had been made to settle the *Alabama* question by what was known as the Johnson-Clarendon Treaty, but this treaty the senate at Washington had refused to ratify, thus leaving unsettled what threatened to be a permanent source of ill-feeling and a possible cause of war between the two countries. The fishing disputes were now added as a further cause of irritation. While there was a prevailing sense of insecurity on all sides and much anxiety to remove every cause of international friction, the failure of the first treaty made it difficult for England to reopen the negotiations. The initiation of renewed discussion came from the Dominion government, which saw clearly that any prolonged delay in asserting

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Canadian rights might prejudice the just claims of the Dominion in the matter of the fisheries, while other questions equally required imperial consideration. During the year 1870 the Hon. Alexander Campbell was sent to England under an order-in-council which directed him to consult the imperial government concerning “the proposed withdrawal of troops from Canada; the question of fortifications; the recent invasions of Canadian territory by citizens of the United States, and the previous threats and hostile preparations which compelled the government to call out the militia and to obtain the consent of parliament to the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act; the systematic trespasses on Canadian fishing grounds by United States fishermen, and the unsettled question as to the limits within which foreigners can fish under the treaty of 1818.” The strong representations which Mr. Campbell was instructed to make gave the British government an opportunity to take action, and it suggested, through the British ambassador at Washington, the appointment of a joint high commission to “treat and discuss the mode of settling the different questions which have arisen out of the fisheries, as well as all those which affect the relations of the United States towards Her Majesty’s possessions in North America.” In reply the opinion was expressed that to settle the differences generally known as the “*Alabama* claims” would also be “essential to the restoration

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of cordial and amicable relations between the two governments” and should therefore be one of the subjects treated by the commission.

To this proposal the British government agreed, “provided that all other claims, both of British subjects and citizens of the United States, arising out of acts committed during the recent civil war in that country, are similarly referred to this commission.”

An agreement having thus been reached, both sides proceeded to name their commissioners plenipotentiary.¹

Under the circumstances it was only natural that the imperial government should wish that Macdonald should be one of the members of the commission. The request that he should so serve placed him, as leader of the Conservative party and premier of the Dominion, in an exceedingly delicate position. The wide extension of the subjects to be discussed and settled, beyond what had been originally suggested by the Canadian government, gave him diverse ground for anxiety and

¹ The representatives of Great Britain, on the commission were:— Earl de Grey and Ripon, president of the Privy Council ; Sir Stafford Northcote, M.P. ; Sir Edward Thornton, British minister at Washington ; Sir John A. Macdonald, premier of Canada ; Montague Bernard, Esq., professor of international law in the University of Oxford. The American commissioners were the Hon. Hamilton Fish, secretary of state ; the Hon. R. C. Schenck, United States minister to Great Britain ; Judge Samuel Nelson, of the United States Supreme Court ; ex-Judge E. R. Hoar, of Massachusetts, and George H. Williams, of Oregon.

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hesitation in accepting the appointment. No one knew better than he the importance of maintaining friendly relations between the empire and the republic, nor could any one have been more keenly alive to the certainty that, if a collision should come between the two great powers, Canada would be the chief arena of conflict and destruction. On the other hand, he knew how fixed was the belief throughout the Dominion that, in diplomatic contests with the United States, Great Britain had almost invariably been outwitted, and that in consequence Canada had suffered severely, especially in the delimitation of her territory. He was fully aware that any further sacrifice of Canadian interests, made even for the maintenance of peace, would be met by a storm of opposition throughout the Dominion, and that any public man in Canada who agreed to it would imperil his reputation and almost certainly wreck his political career. The personal risk taken in accepting the appointment would therefore be great. Another consideration could not but weigh heavily with him as leader of his party and of the government. The commission was to meet towards the end of February, and service upon it would entail prolonged absence from Ottawa at a time when parliament was in session, when critical questions were under discussion, and when a vigorous opposition was preparing for the general election soon to come on. To his absence at this time he

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was accustomed in later years to attribute the weakening of his parliamentary position in 1872, when a general election took place, and, indirectly, his defeat in 1873.

In the exhaustive speech with which, on May 3rd, 1872, he moved in the Dominion parliament the ratification of the clauses which depended on the consent of Canada, he dwelt upon the perplexities which surrounded him at this time.

“I had continually before me,” said he, “not only the imperial question, but the interests of the Dominion of Canada, which I was there especially to represent, and the difficulty of my position was, that if I gave undue prominence to the interests of Canada, I might justly be held in England to be taking a purely colonial and selfish point of view, regardless of the interests of the empire as a whole and the interests of Canada as a portion of the empire; and on the other hand, if I kept my eye solely on imperial considerations, I might be held as neglecting my special duty towards this my country, Canada. It was a difficult position, as the House will believe, a position which pressed upon me with great weight and severity at the time.” And again: “When the proposition was first made to me I must say that I felt considerable embarrassment and great reluctance to become a member of the commission. I pointed out to my colleagues that I was to be one only of five, that I was in a position of being overruled con-

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tinually in our discussions, and that I could not by any possibility bring any due weight from my isolated position. I felt also that I would not receive from those who were politically opposed to me in Canada that support which an officer going abroad on behalf of his country generally received, and had a right to expect." Writing to the governor-general, through whom the offer of a seat upon the commission had been conveyed to him, he says: "My first impression was that it would be better for Canada not to be represented in such a commission. But then we must consider that if Canada allowed the matter to go by default and left its interests to be adjudicated upon and settled by a commission composed exclusively of Americans having adverse interests and Englishmen having little or no interest in Canada, the government here would be very much censured if the result were a sacrifice of the rights of the Dominion. England would at once say that the offer to be represented on the commission was made to Canada and that it was declined." His colleagues in the cabinet, when consulted, were unanimously of the opinion that he should act upon the commission. Even then, before giving his final acceptance, he thought it necessary to fortify his position as a commissioner on certain points which he considered vital from a Canadian point of view. He secured from the imperial government a definite statement that it fully recog-

TREATY OF WASHINGTON

nized and would firmly uphold Canada's exclusive right to the inshore fisheries, and a further declaration that no sale of these fisheries or concession in regard to them should be finally agreed upon until formally ratified by the parliament of the Dominion. On these preliminary conditions he consented to serve, though only then with many misgivings. "I contemplate my visit to Washington with a good deal of anxiety," he writes to his friend, Sir John Rose. "If anything goes wrong I shall be made the scapegoat, at all events as far as Canada is concerned. However, I thought that, after all Canada has done for me, I should not shirk the responsibility."

Leaving Sir Georges Cartier, senior member of the cabinet, in charge of the leadership of the House of Commons, he left Ottawa for Washington, where the commission held its first meeting on February 27th. After anxious discussions, which extended over several weeks, the Treaty of Washington was signed on May 8th, 1871.

Throughout the progress of the negotiations Macdonald, having first received permission to pursue this course, kept his colleagues at Ottawa fully informed concerning the drift of the discussions in a series of letters addressed to Sir Georges Cartier and Sir Charles Tupper. From these documents and from the exhaustive speech in which, a year later, he submitted for the ratification of parliament, the clauses of the treaty which

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affected Canada, we are able to gather a clear idea of the extremely difficult part he had to play.

When he reached Washington he found among the American as well as the British commissioners, a genuinely sincere desire for the reconciliation of all differences. But behind the commissioners was the American senate, which it was well known would reject any treaty which interfered with certain fixed lines of American policy. Reciprocal trade was the equivalent given by the United States in 1854 for the Canadian fisheries, and Macdonald knew that popular opinion in the Dominion looked upon this as the only adequate equivalent that could be given now.

The American commissioners, however, stated from the first, as had been anticipated, that under the newly-adopted trade policy of the country this was impossible. Equally prompt was the refusal to allow Canadians a share in the coasting trade. They offered instead one million dollars for the fisheries in perpetuity. To any such permanent sale Macdonald strenuously objected on high national grounds. He pointed out to the head of the British commission "that it would be out of the question to surrender for all time to come her fishery rights for any compensation however great. That we had no right to injure posterity by depriving Canada, either as a dependency or as a nation, of her fisheries, and in my opinion any surrender must be for a term of years renewable by either party, or, what

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would be preferable, for an unspecified period, but liable to be terminated by either party. That the fisheries were valuable in themselves, and would, with increasing population, become annually of more value; but the value of the catch was of less consequence than the means which the exclusive enjoyment of the fisheries gave us of improving our position as a maritime power. That Canada possessed infinitely more valuable fisheries than the United States, with better harbours, and if we pursued the exclusive system vigorously, we might run a winning race with the United States, as a maritime power. That were our fishing ground used in common by our own and American fishermen the latter would enjoy the same training as ourselves. . . . ”

One serious check, deeply affecting Canadian feeling in regard to the work of the commission, was met with at an early stage of the conference. It had from the first been fully expected that Canada's claims for compensation on account of the Fenian Raids would be one of the subjects brought before the commission. Through what was apparently an oversight on the part of the British ambassador it was found, when the commission met, that these claims had not been expressly included in the terms of reference formally agreed upon. When the question of their inclusion was brought up at the conference, the American commissioners stated that they had no authority to

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deal with them, and that they could only do so under revised instructions.

After some consultation by cable with Mr. Gladstone's cabinet which was then in power, definite directions were sent to the commissioners to withdraw these claims. At the same time the British government assumed entire responsibility for the losses Canada had sustained, and intimated that, if necessary, a money payment would be made by way of compensation. The reason for this withdrawal of claims quite as well founded as those created by the depredations of the *Alabama*, has never been made clear, but in all probability it must be referred to the strong desire felt in England to remove all hindrances to the completion of a treaty.

The failure to consider the claims for the Fenian Raids naturally caused great disappointment in Canada and seriously affected Macdonald's political outlook. Later, when stating the case in parliament, he had no hesitation in fixing the responsibility for the failure. "It was" he said, "the fault of Her Majesty's government in not demanding in clear language, in terms which could not be misunderstood, that the investigation of these claims should be one of the matters dealt with by the commission. . . . England was responsible for that error. England had promised to make the demand, and England had failed to make it. Not only that, but Her Majesty's government had taken the re-

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sponsibility of withdrawing the claims altogether ; and Mr. Gladstone fully assumed all the responsibilities for this step, and relieved the Canadian government of any share in it, when he stated openly in the House of Commons that the imperial government had seen fit to withdraw the claims, but that they had done so with great reluctance and sorrow for the manner in which Canada had been treated. Canada, therefore, had every right to look to England for that satisfaction which she had failed to receive. . . . She did not decline that responsibility. . . .”

He pointed out, however, the unwillingness of the Canadian government that the compensation should take direct pecuniary form. “We were unwilling that it should be the payment of a certain amount of money, and there were several strong reasons why we should prefer not to accept reparation in that shape. In the first place, if a proposal of that kind were made it would cause a discussion as to the amount to be paid by England, of a most unseemly character. We should have the spectacle of a judge appointed to examine the claims in detail, with Canada pressing her cause upon his attention, and England probably resisting in some cases, and putting herself in an antagonistic position, which should not be allowed to occur between the mother country and the colony. It was, therefore, in the last degree inadvisable that the relations between Canada and the mother

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country, which throughout have been of so pleasant and friendly a character, should be placed in jeopardy in that way."

The alternative which he proposed was that an imperial guarantee should be given by Great Britain for a considerable loan which the Dominion had to raise for public works and defence. This, he pointed out, would not cost the motherland a sixpence, but would confer a greater advantage upon Canada than any direct compensation likely to be given. This proposal was accepted, the guarantee was given by Act of Parliament, and, it need scarcely be said, has never put the slightest burden upon the British taxpayer. Even after the Geneva arbitration had mulcted her to the extent of fifteen millions of dollars, Great Britain never took steps to renew the Fenian claims, nor did the United States ever volunteer compensation.

It is not in the sphere of international diplomacy that we must look for ideals or very high examples of justice.

Another disputed question was soon eliminated from the discussions by an agreement which Macdonald fully endorsed as fair and reasonable. The San Juan boundary dispute had arisen from the ambiguity of a clause in the treaty of June 15th, 1846, by which the Oregon boundary was supposed to be finally settled. This clause read as follows: "From the point on the 49th parallel of north latitude, where the boundary laid down in

THE SAN JUAN BOUNDARY

existing treaties and conventions between Great Britain and the United States terminates, the line of boundary between the territories of Her Britannic Majesty and those of the United States, shall be continued westward, along the said 49th parallel of north latitude, to the middle of the channel, which separates the continent from Vancouver Island; and thence southerly through the middle of the said channel, and of Fuca's Straits, to the Pacific Ocean; provided, however, that the navigation of the whole of the channel and straits, south of the 49th parallel of north latitude, remained free and open to both parties." The imperfect direction laid down left it uncertain whether the Island of San Juan, near the coast of Vancouver, was British or American territory. The 34th Article of the Treaty of Washington provided that: "The respective claims of the two governments should be submitted to the arbitrament and award of the German Emperor, who should decide therefore, finally and without appeal, which of the claims is most in accordance with the interpretation of the treaty of June 15th, 1846."

Macdonald had no hesitation in defending this decision in the Canadian parliament when the treaty was under consideration. He said: "The only other subject of peculiar interest to Canada in connection with the treaty . . . is the manner of disposing of the San Juan boundary question.

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That is settled in a way that no one can object to. I do not know whether many honourable members have ever studied that question. It is a most interesting one, and has long been a cause of controversy between the two countries. I am bound to uphold, and I do uphold, the British view respecting the channel which forms the boundary as the correct one. The United States government were, I believe, as sincerely convinced of the justice of their own case. Both believed that they were in the right, both were firmly grounded in that opinion; and such being the case, there was only one way out of it, and that was to leave it to be settled by impartial arbitration. I think the House will admit that no more distinguished arbiter could have been selected than the Emperor of Germany. In the examination and decision of the question he will have the assistance of as able and eminent jurists as any in the world, for there is nowhere a more distinguished body than the jurists of Germany, who are especially familiar with the principles and practice of international law. Whatever the decision may be, whether for England or against her, you may be satisfied that you will get a most learned and careful judgment in the matter, to which we must bow if it is against us, and to which I am sure the United States will bow if it is against them."

The emperor gave his decision in October, 1872. It was unreservedly in favour of the American

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claims, and the Island of San Juan was thereupon evacuated by the British troops.

The Fenian claims having been dismissed and an agreement reached on the question of the San Juan boundary, the matter in debate narrowed down mainly to the *Alabama* claims and the Canadian fisheries. Macdonald had never anticipated, nor had the Canadian government thought, when making its original suggestions in regard to the fisheries, that these two questions would be grouped together and dealt with as a whole, as they now were, for the purpose of the treaty. When the commissioners had finally come to an agreement to submit the *Alabama* claims to arbitration, it was urged that if the fishery question were not settled, the ratification of the whole treaty by the senate would be endangered.

Instead of the full reciprocity, which had been given in return for the use of the fisheries by the United States in 1854, their commissioners now offered to admit free of duty coal, salt, lumber and fish. With the exception of Macdonald all the British commissioners were willing to agree to this proposal, but he strenuously opposed its acceptance, holding that the compensation was wholly inadequate.

He pointed out that the import duty on coal and salt was so unpopular throughout the States that it would soon, in any case, be taken off, and that Canadian fish and lumber were both neces-

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sities to the American consumer, who would himself have to pay the duty, so that this concession conferred little advantage upon Canada.

He therefore claimed that, in the absence of reciprocal arrangements, only a considerable money payment by the United States could make the bargain equal. Standing between the American commissioners keen to make the best bargain, and the English commissioners equally keen to secure a final treaty, he writes : " The absurd attempts of the United States commissioners to depreciate the value of our fisheries would be ridiculous if they were not so annoying. They found our English friends so squeezable in nature that their audacity has grown beyond all bounds." A proposal was now made to submit the amount of additional money payment to arbitration. But to arbitrate about the value of one's own undisputed property was a very different thing from arbitration about a disputed and doubtful right of possession. Against this Macdonald's colleagues at Ottawa took strong ground. They telegraphed : " We are sensible of the gravity of the position and alive to the deep interest which Canada has in the settlement of all disputes between Great Britain and the United States. The queen's government having formally pledged herself that our fisheries should not be disposed without our consent, to force us now into the disposal of them for a sum, to be fixed by arbitration, and free fish, would be a breach of faith, and

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an indignity never before offered to a great British possession. The people of Canada were ready to exchange the right of fishing for reciprocal trade rights to be agreed upon; but, if these cannot be obtained, she prefers to retain her fisheries, and she protests against the course which, against her will, is being pursued with reference to her interests and property. We were never informed that the fisheries would be inextricably mixed up with the *Alabama* question, and could not have apprehended that an attempt would be made to coerce us into an unwilling disposal of them to obtain results, however important, on other points of dispute. Our parliament would never consent to a treaty on the basis now proposed. . . ." But this strong expression of opinion came too late to influence the decision of the home government, which sent direct instructions to the commissioners to agree to the proposal for free fish and a money compensation to be settled by arbitration, subject, however to ratification by Canada.

Macdonald was now in an awkward dilemma in view of the opinion of his cabinet and the warmth of Canadian feeling on the question. His first impulse was to withdraw from the commission rather than subscribe to terms which he did not approve and which he believed the Canadian parliament would reject. Against this step his colleagues on the commission strongly protested, as it would probably wreck the treaty on which so many hopes

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had been based. His second and wiser thought was to remain on the commission in order to watch over the interests of Canada in regard to the navigation of the St. Lawrence and of the canals, the bonding privilege, and other minor matters which had come under consideration, while reserving his freedom of ulterior action on the main issue. Further reflection convinced him that, in the interests of the empire and of Canada itself, the treaty should be maintained, even though it involved sacrifices on the part of Canada. On April 29th, two days after a decision had been reached, he writes to Dr. Tupper at Ottawa : “ The rights of Canada being substantially preserved by reserving to her the veto power as to the fisheries, I am sincerely desirous that a treaty should be made, as it is of the greatest importance that the *Alabama* and San Juan matters should be settled, especially the former. The expectations by the American people of a settlement of these matters have been strung to a very high pitch, and the disappointment, in case the negotiations end in nothing, will be very great. If this attempt to settle the *Alabama* question should fail, no peaceable solution of it is possible, and the war cloud will hang over England and Canada ”

Later he writes to his friend Sir John Rose : “ I at first thought of declining to sign the treaty. That would have been the easiest and most popular course for me to pursue *quoad* Canada and my

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position there, and, *entre nous*, my colleagues at Ottawa pressed me so to do. But my declining to sign might have involved such terrible consequences that I finally made up my mind to make the sacrifice of much of my popularity and position in Canada, rather than run the risk of a total failure of the treaty. . . . I am quite prepared for the storm of attack which will doubtless greet my return to Canada. I think that I should have been unworthy of the position and untrue to myself if, from any selfish timidity, I had refused to face the storm. Our parliament will not meet till February next, and between now and then I must endeavour to lead the Canadian mind in the right direction."

The full storm of opposition criticism which he expected, and even more, fell upon him during the months which elapsed between the conclusion of the treaty and the meeting of parliament. He was freely denounced as a traitor who had sacrificed the interests of Canada to gain imperial approval. Contrary to all expectation, however, the people of the Maritime Provinces, who were more deeply interested than any others in the fishery clauses, accepted this portion of the treaty as likely to work out well in practice. Meanwhile Macdonald had laboriously striven to convince his colleagues in the cabinet that the treaty as a whole should be heartily endorsed. Difficulties had arisen between the United States and England in regard to the Geneva arbitration of the *Alabama* claims, and in

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consequence the meeting of the Canadian parliament was delayed till the last possible moment to see whether these difficulties would be overcome. When an agreement had been reached and the House met in 1872, Macdonald moved the ratification of the clauses, to which Canadian assent was necessary, in one of the most carefully prepared and weighty speeches of his public life. "I believe," he said, "that the sober, second thought of this country accords with the sober, second thought of the government, and we come down here and ask the people of Canada, through their representatives, to accept this treaty, to accept it with all its imperfections, and to accept it for the sake of peace, and for the sake of the great empire of which we form a part."

One of the closing paragraphs from a closely reasoned speech, which occupied more than four hours in delivery, must here suffice to illustrate the breadth of view with which he recommended the treaty to the approval of the Canadian people.

"I shall now move the first reading of this bill, and I shall simply sum up my remarks by saying that with respect to the treaty I consider that every portion of it is unobjectionable to the country, unless the articles connected with the fisheries may be considered objectionable. With respect to those articles I ask this House fully and calmly to consider the circumstances, and I believe, if they do fully consider the situation, that

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they will say it is for the good of Canada that those articles should be ratified. Reject the treaty, and you do not get reciprocity; reject the treaty, and you leave the fishermen of the Maritime Provinces at the mercy of the Americans; reject the treaty, and you will cut off the merchants engaged in that trade from the American market. Reject the treaty, and you will have a large annual expenditure in keeping up a marine police force to protect those fisheries, amounting to about eighty-four thousand dollars per annum. Reject the treaty, and you will have to call upon England to send her fleet and give you both her moral and physical support, although you will not adopt her policy; reject the treaty, and you will find that the bad feeling which formerly and until lately existed in the United States against England will be transferred to Canada: and the United States will say, and say justly, ‘Here, when two nations like England and the United States have settled all their differences and all their quarrels upon a perpetual basis, these happy results are to be frustrated and endangered by the Canadian people, because they have not got the value of their fish for ten years.’

“It has been said by the honourable gentleman on my left [Mr. Howe] in his speech to the Young Men’s Christian Association, that England had sacrificed the interests of Canada. If England has sacrificed the interests of Canada, what sacrifice has she not made in the cause of peace between those two

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great nations, rendering herself liable, leaving out all indirect claims, to pay millions out of her own treasury ? Has she not made all this sacrifice, which only Englishmen and English statesmen can know, for the sake of peace ? For whose sake has she made it ? Has she not made it principally for the sake of Canada ? Let Canada be severed from England—let England not be responsible to us, and for us, and what could the United States do to England ? Let England withdraw herself into her shell, and what can the United States do ? England has got the supremacy of the sea—she is impregnable in every point but one, and that point is Canada ; and if England does call upon us to make a financial sacrifice ; does find it for the good of the empire that we, England's first colony, should sacrifice something, I say that we should be unworthy of our proud position if we were not prepared to do so. I hope to live to see the day, and if I do not, that my son may be spared to see Canada the right arm of England, to see Canada a powerful auxiliary to the empire, not, as now, a cause of anxiety and a source of danger. And I think that if we are worthy to hold that position as the right arm of England, we should not object to a sacrifice of this kind when so great an object is attained, and that object a lasting one.

“It is said that amities between nations cannot be perpetual. But I say that this treaty that has gone through so many difficulties and dangers, if

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it is carried into effect, removes almost all possibility of war. If ever there was an irritating cause of war, it was from the occurrences arising out of the escape of those vessels, and when we see the United States people and government forget this irritation, forget those occurrences and submit such a question to arbitration, to the arbitration of a disinterested tribunal, they have established a principle which can never be forgotten in this world. No future question is ever likely to arise that will cause such irritation as the escape of the *Alabama* did, and if they could be got to agree to leave such a matter to the peaceful arbitration of a friendly power, what future cause of quarrel can, in the imagination of man, occur that will not bear the same pacific solution that is sought for in this? I believe that this treaty is an epoch in the history of civilization ; that it will set an example to the wide world that must be followed ; and with the growth of the great Anglo-Saxon family, and with the development of that mighty nation to the south of us, I believe that the principle of arbitration will be advocated as the sole principle of settlement of differences between the English-speaking peoples, and that it will have a moral influence in the world. And although it may be opposed to the antecedents of other nations, that great moral principle which has now been established among the Anglo-Saxon family will spread itself over all the civilized world. It is not too much to say that it is a great

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advance in the history of mankind, and I should be sorry if it were recorded that it was stopped for a moment by a selfish consideration of the interests of Canada."

It only remains to be mentioned that a decision more satisfactory to Canadians than the San Juan boundary award, more satisfactory, indeed, than any previously arrived at in arbitration with the United States, awaited the clauses of the Washington Treaty providing for compensation for the use of the fisheries. A commission appointed to consider the question met at Halifax in 1877, and after prolonged enquiry conducted by some of the most brilliant counsel of the United States and Canada, awarded to the Dominion the sum of \$5,500,000 as a reasonable equivalent for the excess in value of the Canadian over the American fisheries mentioned in the treaty. In spite of a strong minority protest made by the American commissioners, and much grumbling in the press of the United States and in congress, the sum was finally paid into the Dominion exchequer. This award furnishes the fullest justification of the firm attitude taken by Macdonald throughout the whole affair in establishing the value of what Canada was asked to relinquish. It gives special point to his own confident prediction made in parliament, that "when as a matter of history, the questions connected with this treaty are enquired into, it will be found that upon this, as well as upon every other point, I did

THE TREATY-MAKING POWER

all I could to protect the rights and claims of the Dominion."

The Washington Treaty marked the opening of a new era in the history of imperial negotiations. Treaties affecting Canada had hitherto been made for her by the mother country alone, which was alone responsible for their execution. Now for the first time a colonist, acutely alive to the special interests and claims of his own section of the empire, qualified better than anyone else to represent them, and responsible for his action to the electorate of Canada as well as to the Crown, was asked to accept plenipotentiary power, along with colleagues from the United Kingdom, in framing a treaty which affected the empire as a whole in its relation to another great power.

Doubtless the precedent is one which should, and will, become the rule in dealing with the concerns of those vast territories and increasing communities which in various parts of the world are growing to a national status under the British Crown. It is impossible to imagine that these great dependencies of the empire can allow affairs in which they have a supreme interest to be settled without that full voice in arriving at decisions to which their interests entitle them. But it is equally impossible to imagine, in the present condition of the world, any system by which the treaty-making right can be divorced from the power, based on naval and military strength, which executes treaties

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and gives them efficiency. Coöperation seems therefore the only possible future of national diplomacy for British people. It implies an increasing breadth of view in the colonial statesmen, as well as a clear grasp of the new relations of the empire on the part of the statesmen of the motherland. Macdonald's experience in connection with the Washington Treaty proves that, for the new tasks laid upon the colonies, men are needed with political courage as well as clear insight. It required a strong man to hold the balance justly between interests which were local and those which were broadly imperial. Canadian opinion has now, as he fully expected, ratified his judgment. But at the moment he accepted great responsibilities and faced great risks.

CHAPTER IX

THE GENERAL ELECTION OF 1872

THE first general election after Confederation took place in 1872. The Opposition had gained coherence, their hopes of victory ran high, and the fight was keen. Despite the great work they had carried out in organizing the new federal system, Macdonald and his colleagues had many opposing influences to combat in the constituencies. Many electors were afraid of the gigantic scheme for throwing a railway across the continent, and their fears were sedulously cultivated by the leaders of the Opposition. The "better terms" granted to Nova Scotia in order to secure the adhesion of that province to Confederation were almost as sharply criticized as were the railway inducements held out to British Columbia. The supreme object of a united Canada did not appeal to the imagination of the Liberals of the day, or incline them to make such sacrifices for its attainment as it did with Macdonald. Incidentally, of course, the larger line of policy, being in accord with the dominant feeling of the country, helped to keep the Conservatives in power, a circumstance which could hardly be expected to recommend these sacrifices in Liberal eyes. But outside of mere party considerations

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there were serious disturbing influences. The Orangemen of Ontario were angry because the murderers of Scott at Fort Garry had not been brought to justice ; the Roman Catholics of Quebec because a full amnesty had not been granted to the rebels. Another religious difficulty had sprung up in the Maritime Provinces. Among the matters specifically reserved for provincial control in the new constitution was that of education. The provincial legislature of New Brunswick in the exercise of its constitutional right had in 1871 passed a law which had the effect of taking away government support from separate denominational schools. These had been practically, though not by name, allowed to share in government assistance under the system which was then abolished. The new law weighed heavily upon the Roman Catholics, and a series of petitions was laid before the Dominion parliament in 1872 praying for its disallowance.

Unluckily for the Catholics of New Brunswick, it was their co-religionists of Quebec who had originally insisted upon education being placed under provincial control, and so even Cartier dared not advise disallowance. Macdonald did his best to mollify Catholic opinion by passing through the House a resolution suggesting that the law officers of the British Crown should be consulted as to the constitutionality of the measure, and urging the province in any case to modify its law so “ as to

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remove any just grounds of discontent which now exist." The law officers of the Crown, to whom the question was preferred, promptly confirmed the constitutionality of the provincial measure, and it was only some years later that a compromise was made which alleviated the position of the New Brunswick Catholics. Meanwhile Cartier's failure to stand by his Church in defiance of the constitution greatly weakened his influence among many zealous and prejudiced voters of his native province.

He was at this time in failing health and, through various causes besides that already mentioned, had lost a large measure of his popularity in his Montreal constituency, which was rapidly assuming a decidedly *Rouge* complexion. It was evident from the first that he would have a severe contest to preserve his seat, and when the hour of trial came he was signally defeated.

The Washington Treaty, for the Canadian claims of which Macdonald assumed full responsibility, had been diligently represented as a sacrifice to imperial interests. Not merely had this been done by the Opposition in parliament and out of it, but even one of his colleagues, Joseph Howe, then secretary of state, had taken public occasion to criticize the treaty, and had spoken in terms of scorn of "England's recent diplomatic efforts to buy her own peace at the sacrifice of our interests." Under ordinary circumstances so great an indiscretion on the part of a cabinet minister must have

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entailed resignation, but on the eve of an election Macdonald could not afford to throw overboard the chief representative of Nova Scotia, a province in which the embers of discontent were still glowing and ready to burst anew into flame, and in which Howe was still a power. With admirable self-control he repressed his vexation and excused, as best he could, the utterances of his impulsive colleague.

The abandonment of the claims against the United States for the Fenian outrages in consideration of an imperial guarantee was especially unpopular in Ontario, where the raids had caused loss of life as well as much public expense and anxiety. Nor was the thought that Great Britain was meekly paying the debt due by a foreign power, and one most persistent and exacting where its own rights were concerned, altogether flattering to the British pride of the Canadian people.

Macdonald, with the instinct of a great political strategist, felt that the approaching struggle would be critical. He had convinced himself, as we are assured, that in the attitude of the Opposition on more than one question there were great possibilities of danger to the new Confederation. He threw himself, therefore, into the contest with all his energy—an energy, as the sequel proved, that carried him far beyond the bounds both of prudence and of principle. That he conscientiously thought he was exerting himself for Canada's good his friends have always strenuously

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maintained, and possibly even the dispassionate historian may find it not impossible to believe. Writing to Lord Monck after the election, he says: "I never worked so hard before and never shall do so again; but I felt it to be necessary this time. I did not want a verdict against the treaty from the country, and besides, I sincerely believe that the advent of the Opposition, as it is now constituted, to power, would greatly damage the future of Confederation." And again: "I had to fight a stern and up-hill battle in Ontario, and had I not taken regularly to the stump, a thing that I have never done before, we should have been completely routed. The chief ground of attack on the government was the Washington Treaty, and our submitting to Gladstone's resolve not to press the Fenian claims. Added to this, of course, were all the sins of omission and commission that gather round an administration of so many years duration as ours."

The completed election returns showed that the government was sustained, but by a significantly reduced majority. All the provinces, except Ontario, supported Macdonald and his policy. Nova Scotia, under the vigorous persuasion of Sir Charles Tupper, exactly reversed the verdict of five years before, returning twenty Conservative members out of twenty-one. The defeat of two ministers, Sir Georges Cartier in the province of Quebec and Sir Francis Hincks in Ontario, to-

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gether with the notable gains made by the Opposition in the latter province, had sensibly weakened the position of the administration. Still, confident in his own ability to make the most of the material at his command, Macdonald met parliament in 1873, without any serious misgivings as to the future. He seemed, indeed, at the climax of a brilliantly successful career. He had not only accomplished Confederation, but, in spite of preliminary difficulties of many kinds, had put the new system into regular operation. His judiciously dispensed liberality had reconciled old provinces and won new; the Dominion stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the Great Lakes to the frozen pole. At Washington he had measured his strength with the diplomats and statesmen of Britain and the United States, and in tact and firmness found himself fully their equal. After a fierce struggle, the people had again expressed their confidence in him, and his triumph had been greatest where five years before the Opposition had been most overwhelming. In the hands of so consummate a tactician the majority obtained was sufficient for working purposes; it might grow to more, but the methods by which some part of this majority had been gained had yet to be revealed, and, all unperceived, the Nemesis which attends a too devious expediency in political morals lay silently in wait for the great party leader. In less than a year after the House met he had been

THE PACIFIC SCANDAL

hurled from power, condemned by the voice of the Canadian people, his political career apparently closed, if not blasted, forever.

As a chapter in Canadian history the story of the "Pacific Scandal" is not a pleasant one for Canadians to read, or for a biographer of Macdonald to deal with. It is the unfortunate record of all democracies that the freedom of self-government, won through long and painful struggles, is ever liable to corruption at the fountain-head; that many holders of the franchise are ready to sacrifice the higher rights of citizenship for base considerations; that leaders are willing, or feel themselves constrained, to accept constituents at their own valuation and purchase a support which they see no other means of obtaining. Canada unfortunately supplied a modern instance of this fatal tendency. In the bitter struggles of party politics which had gone on ever since Macdonald entered public life, passion or conviction undoubtedly controlled the great mass of the voters, but it is also certain that party funds were used on both sides, as occasion offered, to sway that characterless and venal class that in closely divided constituencies so often turns the scale of victory. Expenditure on the vast scale familiar in English politics in the last century was unknown and impossible, but such means as were available were freely employed, and the replenishing of the party exchequer was consequently an important preliminary in every general election.

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The necessity for a party fund may be freely admitted, but the methods employed in its collection and distribution put a severe strain too often upon political morality.

In 1871, on the motion of Sir Georges Cartier, in the absence of Macdonald at Washington, parliament had accepted the suggestion of the Opposition that the railway stipulated for by British Columbia should be built, not by the government, but by a state-aided company. During 1871 and 1872 two such companies received charters from the Dominion government, the Inter-Oceanic, headed by Senator D. L. Macpherson of Toronto, and the Canadian Pacific, of which the leading member was Sir Hugh Allan of Montreal. In the formation of the latter company capitalists of the United States were largely interested.

Not wishing to favour exclusively either the Ontario interest represented by the one, or the Quebec interest which was strong in the other, Macdonald endeavoured to bring about an amalgamation of the two companies, a negotiation in which his colleague, Sir Alexander Campbell, took a leading part, but this attempt finally broke down owing to the impossibility of choosing between Allan and Macpherson as presidents, neither of whom would yield precedence to the other. Macdonald then devoted himself to forming a new company, combining the chief elements of both but free from all control by foreign capital, to which there was a strong popular

HUNTINGTON'S MOTION

objection throughout the Dominion. This company was finally constituted, with Sir Hugh Allan as president of the board of directors, a position to which his wealth and great influence in the British money market fairly entitled him.

Parliament had already resolved that any company which undertook to build the road should be subsidized with a grant of thirty million dollars in cash and fifty million acres of land, and a condition was made, as a security against outside control, that the stock of the company should not be transferable for six years. The best opinion of the time, that the public support offered to the enterprise was not too great, was ratified by subsequent experience.

The first session of the new parliament opened on March 5th, 1873, and for the first few weeks business proceeded as usual and without any hint of the coming storm. But on April 2nd, Mr. Lucius Seth Huntington, member for the county of Shefford, rose in his place in the House and amid dead silence moved: "That Mr. Huntington, a member of the House, having stated in his place that he is credibly informed, and believes that he can establish by satisfactory evidence,—

"THAT in anticipation of the legislation of last session as to the Pacific Railway, an agreement was made between Sir Hugh Allan, acting for himself, and certain other Canadian promoters, and G. W. MacMullen, acting for certain United States capitalists, whereby the latter agreed to furnish all

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the funds necessary for the construction of the contemplated railway, and to give the former a certain percentage of interest, in consideration of their interest and position, the scheme agreed on being ostensibly that of a Canadian company with Sir Hugh Allan at its head,—

“THAT the government were aware that negotiations were pending between these parties,—

“THAT subsequently an understanding was come to between the government and Sir Hugh Allan and Mr. Abbott, M.P., that Sir Hugh Allan and his friends should advance a large sum of money for the purpose of aiding the election of ministers and their supporters at the general election, and that he and his friends should receive the contract for the construction of the railway,—

“THAT accordingly Sir Hugh Allan did advance a large sum of money for the purpose mentioned, at the solicitation, and under the pressing instances of ministers,—

“THAT part of the moneys expended by Sir Hugh Allan in connection with obtaining the Act of Incorporation and Charter were paid to him by the said United States capitalists under the agreement with him,—it is

“*Ordered*, that a committee of seven members be appointed to enquire into all the circumstances connected with the negotiations for the construction of the Pacific Railway, with the legislation of last session on the subject, and with the granting of the

VOTE OF CENSURE DEFEATED

charter to Sir Hugh Allan and others ; with power to send for persons, papers and records ; and with instructions to report in full the evidence taken before, and all proceedings of, said committee."

This bombshell did not for the moment explode. After making his motion Mr. Huntington sat down. No one rose to reply. Sir John Macdonald sat unmoved. After a long silence a division was taken without debate, and what was practically a vote of censure supported only by the bare word of Mr. Huntington was defeated by one hundred and seven to seventy-six. Huntington's failure to bring forward any evidence was regarded as a gross tactical blunder by two such experts as Sir John Macdonald and Lord Dufferin, the new governor-general. It has been questioned whether at the time he had such evidence in his possession. He may have believed it to exist, and ventured his motion as a feeler. As such it was abundantly successful. The charges were too serious to be passed over, amounting as they did to an accusation that the government "had trafficked with foreigners in Canada's most precious interests in order to debauch the constituencies of the Dominion with the gold obtained as the price of their treachery."¹ Next day Sir John Macdonald gave notice of a motion which was carried five days later (April 8th), "that a select committee of five members (of which committee the mover shall not be

¹Lord Dufferin to the Earl of Kimberly, August 15th, 1873.

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one) be appointed by this House to enquire into and report upon the several matters contained and stated in the resolution moved on Wednesday, the 2nd day of April instant, by the Hon. Mr. Huntington, member for the county of Shefford, relating to the Canadian Pacific Railway, with power to send for persons, papers and records, and to report the evidence from time to time, and, if need be, to sit after the prorogation of parliament."

It was suggested that a special Act should be passed empowering the committee to examine witnesses on oath. Macdonald doubted the legality of such a course, but suggested that the same end, which he approved, might be attained by issuing, as he offered to do, a royal commission to the committee. His opinion was over-ruled and the Act giving power to examine under oath was passed. On being referred to the law officers of the Crown in England, the Bill was disallowed as *ultra vires*.

Meantime, the committee decided to adjourn till July 2nd on account of the absence in England of witnesses so essential as Sir Georges Cartier and the Hon. J. J. C. Abbott; while parliament adjourned till August 13th on the clear understanding that its meeting would then be a formal one—merely for the reception of the report. It was considered that this arrangement would give time for the completion of the investigations.

CORRUPT DEALINGS

When the committee met in July the proclamation of disallowance consequent upon the decision of the law officers of the Crown had been made, and as the committee did not feel free to depart from the instructions of the House of Commons to take the evidence under oath, Macdonald again offered to issue a royal commission. But Messrs. Blake and Dorion, the Liberal members of the committee, believing that the enquiry should be conducted under the direction of the Commons and not of the Crown, refused to act upon the commission, so the enquiry was for the moment blocked. But in the interval between these events and the time appointed for the meeting of parliament, new developments arrested public attention. On July 4th a Montreal paper published a number of letters and telegrams sent by Sir Hugh Allan to capitalists and others in the United States, pointing strongly to the existence of a corrupt bargain between Allan and the government in connection with the charter for building the Canadian Pacific Railway. A statement on oath by Sir Hugh Allan denying the charges made by Mr. Huntington of a corrupt bargain, or indeed of any bargain, was published on July 5th. This quieted public anxiety and excitement for the moment, but on July 18th further documents and telegrams, surreptitiously obtained in some way from private offices, and apparently authentic, were published, showing that Sir Georges Cartier and Sir John Macdonald had,

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during the progress of the election, called for and received from Sir Hugh Allan, large sums of money with the manifest purpose of influencing the constituencies.

When the House met according to arrangement on August 13th, vehement efforts were made by the Opposition to change the form of meeting agreed upon into a regular session, in order to deal at once with the charges that had been made. To this Macdonald could not agree, as a large body of his supporters were in the more distant parts of Canada and some in Europe, so that the Opposition, whose strength lay in Ontario, would probably have secured a majority on any vote of censure in a parliament so called together. Great pressure was brought upon the governor-general, the Earl of Dufferin, by petition and through the press, to induce him to insist upon parliament proceeding to deal with the question at once. When the governor-general announced his decision that by the constitution he was bound to follow the advice of his ministers in regard to prorogation, the House broke up amid scenes of great excitement. On the day following the prorogation, a royal commission was issued, on Macdonald's advice, to three judges, empowering them to investigate and report the evidence bearing upon the charges.

The commission began its sittings on August 28th. It examined Macdonald and several members of the government, together with Sir

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Hugh Allan, Mr. Macpherson and many others. Mr. Huntington refused to assist in the inquiry, averring that to do so would be a breach of the privileges of parliament. Parliament itself was summoned on October 23rd to receive the report. Meanwhile on October 9th, Macdonald had addressed to the governor-general an elaborate statement, confidential at the time, but since published, of the circumstances connected with the formation of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, and a defence of his position in relation to the charges made. The expenditure of money on the elections was freely admitted, and was justified, partly as legitimate expense, partly as the custom in party contests, partly as an offset to Opposition expenditure and influence, especially in the province of Ontario, where a local Liberal administration threw its whole weight against his government. That there was any corrupt bargain between Sir Hugh Allan and himself he utterly denied. The inducement to large expenditures made by that gentleman was explained by his extensive steamboat and other interests, the future of which depended to a great extent on the success of the government policy. In this statement, confidential at the time, but since published, Macdonald admitted that Sir Georges Cartier had, at an early stage of the proceedings, made arrangements with Sir Hugh Allan which he could not approve and had felt bound to repudiate, attributing the error

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of judgment to the failing health and weakened mental powers of his colleague.

When parliament met on October 23rd to receive the report of the commission, an amendment to the address was immediately moved by Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, the leader of the Opposition. This amendment said: "We have to acquaint His Excellency that by their course in reference to the investigation of the charges preferred by Mr. Huntington in his place in this House, and under the facts disclosed in the evidence laid before us, His Excellency's advisers have merited the severest censure of the House."

A week of fierce discussion followed, during which it gradually became clear to Macdonald that he could not hold his majority together in the division which was approaching. On the fourth day of the debate he rose to make his fuller defence before the House, and in a speech of five hours in length reviewed all the circumstances of the election, and of the subsequent investigation. But it was with the knowledge that he was confronted with defeat that he made his final appeal. "I commit myself," he said, "the government commits itself to the hands of this House, and far beyond the House, it commits itself to the country at large. We have faithfully done our duty. We have fought the battle of Confederation. We have fought the battle of Union. We have had party strife, setting province against province; and, more than all, we

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have had in the greatest province, the preponderating province of the Dominion, every prejudice and sectional feeling that could be arrayed against us. I have been the victim of that conduct to a great extent, but I have fought the battle of Confederation, the battle of Union, the battle of the Dominion of Canada. I throw myself upon this House ; I throw myself upon this country ; I throw myself upon posterity ; and I believe that I know that, notwithstanding the many failings in my life, I shall have the voice of this country and this House rallying round me. And, Sir, if I am mistaken in that, I can confidently appeal to a higher court—to the court of my own conscience, and to the court of posterity. I leave it with this House with every confidence. I am equal to either fortune. I can see past the decision of this House, either for or against me, but whether it be for or against me, I know, and it is no vain boast for me to say so, for even my enemies will admit that I am no boaster—that there does not exist in Canada a man who has given more of his time, more of his heart, more of his wealth, or more of his intellect and power, such as they may be, for the good of this Dominion of Canada.”

It was evident, however, as the debate progressed, that the time for special pleading and excuse was past. The conscience of the country had been shocked by the revelation made of the methods by which the late election had been won for the

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Conservative party, many of Macdonald's own followers were in painful doubt, and independent members who had hitherto supported his great lines of policy were falling away. Early in the morning of November 5th, the member for Winnipeg, Mr. Donald A. Smith (now Lord Strathcona) spoke amid great excitement in the House, as neither party knew what course he would take. In the early part of his speech he dwelt favourably upon what the government had accomplished. But he concluded by saying that :—
“ With respect to the transaction between the government and Sir Hugh Allan, he did not consider that the first minister took the money with any corrupt motive. He felt that the leader of the government was incapable of taking money from Sir Hugh Allan for corrupt purposes. He would be most willing to vote confidence in the government—could he do so conscientiously. It was with very great regret that he felt he could not do so. For the honour of the country, no government should exist that has a shadow of suspicion of this kind resting on them, and for that reason he could not support them.”

It has been generally believed that it was this speech which decided Macdonald's course. Recognizing that defeat was inevitable, without awaiting the result of the debate he placed his resignation in the hands of the governor-general and on the same day (November 5th, 1873)

PARLIAMENT DISSOLVED

announced in the House that the government had resigned and that Mr. Alexander Mackenzie had been called upon to form a ministry. So ended under a dark cloud of public suspicion the great administration under which Confederation had been inaugurated and the country launched upon the flood of its larger destinies.

On the dissolution of parliament and the appeal to the electors which soon followed the formation of a new administration, overwhelming defeat at the polls fell upon Macdonald and his party. He himself narrowly escaped rejection in his old constituency of Kingston, and his whole following in the new parliament barely numbered forty-five in a House of two hundred and six members. As with Palmerston in 1858 opponents thought and loudly proclaimed that his political career was ended. Confident in his own integrity of purpose, and in the strength of his hold upon the popular mind ; confident too in his plans for the future of the country, and convinced that the country would yet have need of him, Macdonald bowed to the storm, faced the situation with undaunted courage, and took up with cheerfulness the work of leading the Opposition. To this task he was called by the absolutely unanimous vote of his small band of followers in parliament.

CHAPTER X

THE NATIONAL POLICY

1873 to 1878

THE early sessions of the first Liberal administration of the Dominion were not marked by any factious opposition on the part of Macdonald. Many useful measures were brought forward by the government in the wisdom of which he fully concurred, while to others he proposed amendments increasing their value but not destroying their principle. Never had his vigour of intellect and splendid buoyancy of spirit shown to greater advantage than when leading an almost forlorn parliamentary hope. He had offered, when defeated, to resign the leadership of his party, but his followers with absolute unanimity had refused even to think of serving under any one else. Consummate tactician that he was, he abstained from exposing the weakness of his party-following in the House by frequent divisions, and devoted himself to careful legislative criticism, to study of the electorate, and to patient waiting for that revulsion of popular feeling in his favour which he was confident would come.

Raillery, rather than the more violent methods urged by some of his friends, marked his attacks

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on the government. "Give the Grits rope enough," was his reply to such suggestions, "and they will hang themselves." To say that the event justified his predictions might perhaps not be altogether fair to his Liberal opponents, against whom circumstances worked which had no connection with any defects of policy or errors of judgment on their part. Still, in the light of events, Macdonald appeared to his friends to have spoken in the spirit of prophecy; and there is little doubt that his dictum was founded on a certain insight into the characteristics of the Liberal party of his day as well as a profound understanding of the temper of the Canadian people. A great general's success often depends as much upon his power of anticipating the errors of adversaries as upon any combination of his own. So it was in the battlefield of politics with Macdonald.

The leading members of the Liberal party of that day, it is generally admitted, had high ideals of political purity and honesty in administration, though the rank and file were probably as ready as any other to win elections by such means as came to their hands. Macdonald himself would perhaps have agreed that Alexander Mackenzie and Edward Blake had standards of political morality stricter in some particulars than his own. At any rate they claimed them, and on that claim had come into power. But they were cautious even to timidity. No temper could be less fitted to win popularity

DISCONTENT IN THE WEST

and secure power in the young and ambitious Dominion during the early years of Confederation. Macdonald clearly foresaw that their attitude on more than one great public question foredoomed them to failure in the task of satisfying popular desires.

The refusal to carry out the terms of the agreement to build within ten years a transcontinental railway, alienated the West and drove British Columbia to the verge of secession. Mackenzie himself, than whom no more high-minded and indefatigable man ever served a British colony, lacked Sir John's skill in cabinet making and in the arts by which a political majority is held together. Nor did he ever secure in an equal degree the loyalty of colleagues. Discontent became rife among his followers ; dissensions became frequent in the cabinet and were more than once fought out on the floor of the House. Meanwhile Macdonald was not relying alone upon the mistakes of his opponents. He was steadily shaping a large constructive policy and skilfully appealing to the electorate on lines adapted to stir popular enthusiasm. To the development of the North-West and the fulfilment of the bargain with British Columbia, he stood pledged. To these planks of his platform he was soon to add another of even more vital consequence, and greater attractiveness. In this he was singularly favoured by the circumstances of the time. Though the reciprocity treaty

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negotiated by Lord Elgin in 1854 had come to an end in 1866 owing to its denunciation by the government of the United States, the early years of the new Dominion were years of prosperity. The farmers gathered in excellent crops; the European markets were favourable; and the perfect freedom of trade between the provinces which came with Confederation greatly enlarged the field for the nascent manufacturing industries of the towns. But about 1873 a tide of economic depression swept over the whole North American continent. In great measure it was one of those commercial crises which can neither be foreseen nor prevented. It did not originate in Canada, and was not confined to her borders. But the undeveloped and struggling colony was far less fitted to bear the industrial strain than her powerful neighbour, and the conditions of the crisis in the United States greatly increased her distress. The protective policy of that country gave no hope to the Canadian manufacturer, and was beginning to cripple also the lumbermen and the farmers. In the opinion of many, perhaps of most, Canadians that policy was, in part at least, intended to drive Canada into union on such terms as Washington might impose. On the other hand, manufacturers of the United States, whom a protective policy had stimulated to over-production, finding in the prevailing depression large surplus stocks on their hands, threw them upon Canada as a slaughter market, or in the

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language of a later day, as a dumping ground. The Canadian manufacturer was thus ground between the upper and nether millstones of an unfair competition, while the farmer found his home market contracted and his foreign market rendered precarious and uncertain.

The trade with Great Britain in perishable agricultural products which has since become so important, was not then possible, since the cold storage system on which it depends had not been developed. Every interest, indeed, was depressed. The result was speedily apparent in the falling revenue of the country. The Liberals, whose watchword was economy and whose goal was free trade, were compelled by sheer necessity to raise the tariff. Even so there was a yearly deficit, which in 1876-7 amounted to nearly two million dollars. In the same year the customs dues from which one half the revenue was derived fell from \$15,351,000 to \$12,546,000. In the words of the finance minister, Mr. (afterwards Sir Richard) Cartwright, "a commercial crisis, great and almost unparalleled in severity" reigned throughout the country. It was under such circumstances that on March 10th, 1876, Sir John Macdonald brought forward in the House a resolution in favour of a "National Policy" of increased protection to mining, manufacturing and agricultural interests, and in doing this he received the united support of the Conservative opposition. He had struck the true note of

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Canadian feeling. After thirty years experience in carrying out the system then proposed, his countrymen are practically unanimons in thinking that he had also found the true line of Canadian interest.

The previous tariff history of Canada presents few features of interest. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick before Federation had a low tariff for revenue purposes, with an extensive free list. Canada in 1859, under the guidance of Mr. (afterwards Sir A. T.) Galt, introduced a rather high tariff, with a distinct leaning to protection. The Duke of Newcastle, the colonial secretary, under pressure from manufacturing constituencies in Great Britain, protested and threatened disallowance, but Galt stood firm. In 1866, on the eve of Federation, this tariff had been lowered in order to render possible a compromise with the Maritime Provinces, and in 1867 the Dominion tariff had been fixed at a rate which roughly amounted to fifteen per cent. *ad valorem*, with a free list of moderate extent. From that date the desire for a distinctly protective policy had been steadily growing, and since 1870 petitions in its favour had been coming in, frequently coupled with the idea of retaliation on the United States.

The very name, "National Policy," had been used as early as 1871 by Sir Francis Hincks, and is usually supposed to have been adapted and applied to the policy of protection by Sir Charles Tupper.

A POLICY OF PROTECTION

Macdonald did not now place himself at the head of the movement without careful study of the Canadian situation, nor until he was convinced that the time was ripe for change. Some of his supporters were impatient with his deliberation. "Sir John was timid unto death of protection, had to be bullied into it, led into it, committed to it by others. But when he thought it grown, he used it as a bridge to reach the power he liked to wield," wrote in after years one of his parliamentary followers. A view such as this scarcely does justice to Macdonald's record on the question. He had argued for incidental protection in 1846; had associated himself in 1850 with the British American League, which aimed at framing a commercial national policy; had supported Galt, when, as finance minister in 1858, he had announced protection to native industries as the policy of the government; and had advocated readjustment of the tariff to favour home manufactures in the general elections of 1861 and 1872.

The caution which now marked his course when the rising aspirations and settled judgment of the country had to be translated into practical legislation, was an essential element in his statesmanship. As in the case of Federation he did not catch with facile enthusiasm at the idea floating in the popular mind, nor hastily grasp it as a party weapon. But once adopted, he urged it with a power, a versatility, and a tact which makes him in a very

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real sense the father of the National Policy. He was splendidly helped by his lieutenants, especially by Sir Charles Tupper and Sir Leonard Tilley. The Nova Scotian leader fought with the almost reckless valour which had marked his struggle for free schools in 1863 and for federation in 1865. But for his unflinching hopefulness it is doubtful whether Sir John would have come triumphantly through the dark days of 1874 and 1875. Sir Leonard Tilley's rare power of financial exposition and commanding weight of personal character were of almost equal service.

No time was lost in putting the new policy before the country, and an original device was hit upon for doing this. During the summer of 1876 a series of political picnics was held throughout the Dominion, more especially in Ontario, under the auspices of the local Conservative associations, and were addressed by Macdonald, Tupper, Tilley, Thomas White and other prominent members of the Opposition. The success of this new experiment in political agitation led to its repetition in 1877, and won the tribute of imitation from the Liberals. Many factories were closed or were but in partial operation at this time, owing to the industrial depression, and so the hands were free to be present at the Conservative picnics, and to hear of the tall chimneys which, as by a wave of the enchanter's wand, were to rise in every province from Halifax to Vancouver. The sympathetic owners of factories

POLITICAL PICNICS

still in operation closed their establishments for the day, and encouraged their men to attend. Special rates were given by the railways, and excursion trains were run from all the neighbouring towns, so that immense crowds were drawn together for discussion. At the gathering in London in June, 1877, it was estimated that twenty thousand were present. On such occasions Macdonald's winning personality, his natural sociability, his ready wit, his marvellous power of remembering faces, were far more valuable assets than his speeches, which, read in cold blood, hardly match his reputation, being largely devoted to attacks, sometimes humorous, sometimes keenly satiric, often abusive, on his political opponents, poor stuff enough when divorced from the jaunty toss of the head, the glancing smile, the shrewd and meaning twinkle which once carried them off. Indeed throughout his career, save on great occasions, he seems to have taken pleasure in leaving to trusted lieutenants the weightier arguments of his case, reserving for himself the lighter parts in the political play. Yet he seldom failed to put before his country audiences, in simple language and without the flowers of eloquence, the pith of the question with which he had to deal. A few passages from his speech at the Norfolk picnic illustrate the simplicity of his style and argument.

“ We are in favour of a tariff that will incidentally give protection to our manufacturers ; that will

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develop our manufacturing industries. We believe that that can be done, and if done it will give a home market to our farmers. The farmers will be satisfied when they know that large bodies of operatives are working in the mills and manufactories in every village and town in the country. They know that every man of them is a consumer, and that he must have pork and flour, beef and all that the farmers raise, and they know that instead of being obliged to send their grain to a foreign and uncertain market they will have a market at their own door. And the careful housewife, every farmer's wife, will know that everything that is produced under her care—the poultry, the eggs, the butter and the garden stuff—will find a ready and profitable market in the neighbouring town and village.

“No country is great with only one industry. Agriculture is our most important, but it cannot be our only staple. All men are not fit to be farmers; there are men with mechanical and manufacturing genius who desire to become operatives or manufacturers of some kind, and we must have means to employ them, and when there is a large body of successful and prosperous manufacturers, the farmer will have a home market for his produce, and the manufacturer a home market for his goods, and we shall have nothing to fear. And therefore I have been urging upon my friends that we must lay aside all old party quarrels about old party doings.

THE LIBERALS' ALTERNATIVE

Those old matters are matters before the flood, which have gone by and are settled forever, many of them settled by governments of which I was a member. Why should parties divide on these old quarrels? Let us divide on questions affecting the present and future interests of the country.

“ The question of the day is that of the protection of our farmers from the unfair competition of foreign produce, and the protection of our manufacturers. I am in favour of reciprocal free trade if it can be obtained, but so long as the policy of the United States closes the markets to our products we should have a policy of our own as well, and consult only our own interests. That subject wisely and vigorously dealt with, you will see confidence restored, the present depression dispelled, and the country prosperous and contented.”

While Macdonald and his followers were advocating what was at least a specious remedy for the industrial depression, the Liberals had no alternative to offer save the recommendation to the electorate to practice thrift and to wait for the swing of the economic pendulum. The finance minister carried his trust in the laws of political economy so far as to say that it was as vain for governments or legislators to claim credit for the commercial and industrial prosperity of a country as it would be for a fly on a moving wheel to consider itself the author of the motion—an unfortunate simile, as it won for his party the nickname

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of “ Flies-on-the-wheel,” which was used to good effect during the picnic campaigns. Besides this, protestations of devotion to free trade sounded hollow coming from a government which had been compelled to dissemble its love for the principle to the extent of raising the tariff. Free trade has before now proved a stimulating and successful party cry, but it was found difficult to arouse any wide-spread enthusiasm for the inherent sanctity of a tariff of seventeen and a half per cent. *ad valorem*. Nor were the members of the government at one on the matter. Of the Liberal leaders, Edward Blake was almost openly in favour of the National Policy. On the other hand David Mills assured the London Chamber of Commerce “ that of all systems of taxation there is none more objectionable than incidental protection.” Mackenzie and Cartwright both seemed for a time open to conviction. At the bye-election in Montreal in 1876, resulting in the return of Mr. Workman, a strong Liberal but a stronger protectionist, Mackenzie seemed almost persuaded, and Cartwright’s replies to a series of delegations in the same year induced a general belief throughout the country that the tariff would be raised to at least twenty per cent. Finally, however, “ in deference to their formula ” as they were told by Goldwin Smith, “ they chose to be stiff-necked, and kicked complaining industry into the camp of their opponents.”

A NATIONAL POLICY PROPOSED

“In this country” said Macdonald in 1876, “we are not called upon to break our heads upon theories.” The Liberal doctrinaires thought otherwise, and succeeded in dominating their party, to their own overthrow, in the election of 1878. It took eighteen years of opposition to repair the fortunes shattered by this mistake, and when the Liberals again came into power it was to exhibit themselves as practical converts to the policy which Macdonald had established.

Turning again to Macdonald, it should be noted that to the extreme protectionists of his party, he steadily refused to commit himself. In June, 1878, he endeavoured to assuage the anxiety of the Maritime Provinces by a telegram stating that he had “never proposed an increase, but a readjustment of the tariff,” and his motion in the House of Commons earlier in the same year was drawn with characteristic skill.

Unlike that of 1876 it does not mention protection, but states “that this House is of opinion that the welfare of Canada requires the adoption of a National Policy which, by a judicious readjustment of the tariff, will benefit and foster the agricultural, the mining, the manufacturing and other interests of the Dominion; . . . and moving (as it ought to do) in the direction of reciprocity of tariff with our neighbours, as far as the varied interests of Canada may demand, will greatly tend to procure for this country, eventually, a reciprocity of trade.”

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More than one breeze of popular opinion was caught by this resolution. It appealed at once to the deep-seated Canadian suspicion of the United States, and to the strong desire of the farmers for the American market. It was, in fact, a blow at the enemy with the ostensible object of forcing him into a more friendly attitude. Equally important was its appeal to the rising national sentiment of the Dominion, of which the National Policy was the crystallization.

In 1870 an association of able and ambitious young men, known as the "Canada First" party, had been formed in Toronto. Their actual proposals were of less importance than the stimulus which they gave to the national aspirations: their call to Canada to depend not on British or American patronage in commerce or politics, but on herself. Canadian individuality, vigorously worked out on lines not inconsistent with close imperial connection, was the key-note of the party's policy. Around this ideal gathered a number of clever and independent thinkers. For a time they were supported by the distinguished name and skilful pen of Goldwin Smith. They exerted a powerful influence over the course of events at the time of the first North-West rebellion. In the 1878 campaign they were nearly all on the side of Macdonald.

To another argument not brought into his motion, but presented in his speech, Macdonald

PREFERENTIAL TRADE

probably attached greater importance than to the hope of bringing the United States to its knees. This was the possibility of obtaining a trade preference from Great Britain. After giving a sketch of her unique commercial position at the close of the Napoleonic wars in 1815, and of the subsequent gradual growth of trade rivals and also of hostile tariffs, he said :—

“I am an old man, but I think I may live to see the time when that cry may be successful in England; the time when, if reciprocity in trade and equitable commercial treaties cannot be obtained, the people of England will say, ‘we will not allow our industries and our accumulated capital of so many years to be swept away by nations who do not give us a chance of competing in their markets, and who, by their legislation, specially exclude England.’”

On his return to power Macdonald took steps to press his views upon the home government. The appointment of his old finance minister, Sir A. T. Galt, as high commissioner in London, had apparently a close connection with this object, and there is reason to think, from a debate on the subject in the Canadian House in 1880 that, had Lord Beaconsfield's government been sustained, important developments might have taken place. In 1891 Macdonald again urged upon the mother country the policy of preferential treatment, and received encouraging letters from the Hon. W. H.

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Smith, then leader of the British House of Commons. But the feeling in favour of preferential trade was not yet strong enough in the motherland to justify responsible statesmen in making it a political issue. We need only note here the foresight which anticipated the movement of late years.

The general election came on in September, 1878. The government had been warned by the loss of a series of bye-elections—a most significant circumstance in a country where the allotment of public works is openly made the reward of support to the party in power. But the Mackenzie administration was curiously confident in the strength of its position, and so the triumph of Macdonald and the Conservative party came as a great surprise. The Opposition swept every province except New Brunswick, carrying in Ontario sixty-three seats out of eighty-eight, and in the whole Dominion one hundred and forty-six out of two hundred and six. Macdonald was himself defeated in his old constituency of Kingston, but was elected in two western divisions, and decided to sit for Victoria, British Columbia.

Early in the next year Sir Leonard Tilley, as finance minister, introduced a bill to give effect to the National Policy, which was frankly based upon the theory of a qualified protection, its principle being “to select for a higher rate of duty those articles which are manufactured or can be

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manufactured in the country, and to leave those that are neither made nor are likely to be made in the country at a lower rate." This has ever since been the trade policy of the Conservative party of Canada. As has been mentioned before, the Liberal party was practically compelled to adopt it on coming into power in 1896.

From 1874 to 1878 the rate charged on dutiable goods had been about twenty per cent. The National Policy, usually spoken of as the N.P., raised it to about twenty-five per cent., while in many cases substituting specific or compound duties for *ad valorem*. During the following years a good many changes were made, some really useful—others which seemed mere tinkering to meet special demands. In 1887 important reforms were introduced, the average rate on dutiable goods rising to nearly thirty per cent., and iron being now for the first time specially protected, in order to still the discontent of Nova Scotia, which indulged hopes of becoming in the industrial system of Canada what Pennsylvania is in that of the United States. From 1890 onwards until the Liberals came into office in 1896 a slight tendency to reduction of duties may be traced, but few changes of importance were made.

The advantage of the system thus inaugurated is now scarcely a subject of discussion in Canada. Under its stimulating influence business improved and the revenue promptly expanded to such a de-

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gree that the government was able to show a considerable surplus. A marked increase in prosperity followed, even if it were not wholly created by, the new system. Every department of national life revived, and it may now be safely affirmed that the adoption of the National Policy went far to create in Canada a higher and more confident national spirit.

CHAPTER XI

THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY AND THE NORTH-WEST

THE Intercolonial Railway had been built as a necessary link between the old provinces of Canada, to give them cohesion and to create common interests where these had not existed before. But cohesion in the east was only a basis for expansion in the west. On the acquisition and development of the vast regions between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains depended the future of the Dominion. Amid many difficulties and not a little bungling, as we have seen, they were acquired. The construction of railways and the introduction of colonists were essential to their development, and to these objects Macdonald and his colleagues, on their return to power in 1878, addressed themselves with foresight, enthusiasm, and indomitable courage. For the tasks before them, they needed all the support that these qualities at their best could give. It is true that the continent of America had already been bridged and the Rockies had been crossed by a line of railway through the United States, but the conditions under which it had been done had been far different from those with which Canada had now to deal.

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The population of the Eastern and Western States numbered forty millions ; the advance guard of civilization had been pushed far west of the Mississippi ; a large and wealthy population had already settled and built great cities on the Pacific coast, before the people of the United States attempted to link together their east and west. The white inhabitants of British Columbia, on the other hand, numbered only ten thousand ; the whole population of Eastern Canada only four millions ; two thousand miles of the country to be traversed were practically without a settler when the statesmen of the Dominion undertook the gigantic task of uniting their most distant borders by a line of rails, recognized by them as a necessary part of the frame-work of a great nation. Four hundred miles of rough granitic country north of Lake Superior, uninhabited, and, save for a mining population, well-nigh uninhabitable ; then one thousand two hundred miles of virgin prairie ; after that five hundred miles of mountain railway through the almost unexplored passes of the Rocky and Selkirk Ranges ; this was the problem that confronted the engineer, the contractor, the financier, the politician. The skill of the engineer, the resources of the builder, the audacity of the financier were all to be strained to the utmost. But all these would have been of no avail but for the unflinching courage of the strong men at the helm of the State, in whom the people

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had put their trust. Under the terms of the bargain made with British Columbia in 1870, the railway connecting the Pacific with the Atlantic was to be begun within two years, and completed within ten. The work was to be carried out by a private company assisted by large money and land subsidies from the Dominion government. When Macdonald's administration fell in 1872, it of course became impossible for the company represented by Sir Hugh Allan to carry on the work, even if it had been able, as it was not, to raise the necessary capital.

The Liberal party had, while in opposition, vigorously criticized the original scheme, as placing too heavy a burden upon the resources of the Dominion. On coming into power it adopted a policy of government ownership, and of gradual construction in scattered sections connecting the extensive lake and river stretches which it was proposed to utilize as part of the highway from east to west. The agreement with British Columbia was abandoned as impossible of fulfilment. That province naturally resented what it considered a breach of faith. A representative of the government sent out to allay the discontent failed in accomplishing his purpose, and all the tact and influence of Lord Dufferin, then governor-general, who visited the province in 1876, was required to prevent the repudiation of the Confederation agreement.

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On Macdonald's restoration to power in 1878 his first care was to carry out his election pledges in regard to a national trade policy. But no sooner was this inaugurated than he reverted to the trans-continental railway scheme which he had always deemed essential to the consolidation of the Dominion. Experience with the Intercolonial had now converted him from his earlier preference for government ownership and operation, and on June 29th, 1880, he announced at a political picnic at Bath, Ontario, that negotiations were on foot with a syndicate of private capitalists. In September the contract was signed. In six years it was completed.

Never did a young country embark upon a more audacious enterprise ; never did capitalists throw their all into a more hazardous speculation ; never did a cool and wary politician more strikingly display a readiness to risk his reputation and his fame on a momentous adventure. Among the obstacles to the work, not the least serious was the pessimistic view of the situation taken by the leaders of the Liberal party. Even when in power in 1874 Alexander Mackenzie, the Liberal prime minister, in a formal State paper of instructions to Mr. Edgar, the agent of the government sent to British Columbia, had described the task of completing the line in the ten years as a "physical impossibility." "You can point out," he said, "that the surveys for the Intercolonial were

ATTACKS ON RAILWAY POLICY

begun in 1864, and the work carried on uninterruptedly ever since, and although the utmost expedition was used, it will still require eighteen months to complete it. If it required so much time in a settled country to build five hundred miles of railway, with facilities everywhere for procuring all supplies, one may conceive the time and labour required to construct a line five times that length through a country all but totally unsettled."

No one doubts the honesty of conviction with which such an opinion was given; the accuracy of judgment can only be measured by the fact that when Macdonald was again in a position to control the work the whole line was completed for through traffic, as has been said, in six years. Alexander Mackenzie had in 1880 been replaced in the Liberal leadership by Edward Blake, a man of equal honesty of purpose and wider range of ability, but little imagination or enthusiasm. Both in parliament and throughout the country the new leader employed his power in delivering a series of eloquent but mournful attacks upon the railway contract, in which he fancied he saw ruin for the State. The leading Liberal organ declared that the new line would never "pay for its axle-grease." Nor were political opponents the only critics. British financiers, looking coolly at the vast stretches of country to be covered, inclined towards the opinion of one of their number who said, "Somebody will have to hold these Canadians

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back, or they will plunge themselves into hopeless bankruptcy before they come of age."

The history of the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway reads like a chapter of romance. The original Canadian directors of the syndicate were Mr. George Stephen (now Lord Mount Stephen), Mr. Duncan MacIntyre and Mr. R. B. Angus. Behind them was Mr. Donald A. Smith (now Lord Strathcona), member of parliament for Selkirk, whose speech in 1873 had so largely contributed to Macdonald's defeat, but who, by 1878, had come to feel that on his return to power depended the future of the West and of Canada.

By the original contract the company was to receive twenty-five million dollars in cash, twenty-five million acres of land in alternate blocks along the route, and all lands required for stations and workshops. The government handed over to it six hundred and forty one miles of railway, partly in process of construction, partly completed, and estimated by the minister of public works as having cost twenty-eight million dollars. The company was allowed to import its materials free of duty, and its lands were to be free of taxation for twenty years. For a like period no competing road was to be built south of its main line, a provision intended as a protection against American competition, but which proved so irksome to the province of Manitoba that in 1888 the company, for certain considerations, abandoned it. These privileges were

CANADIAN PACIFIC DIFFICULTIES

great, but not, it is now universally admitted by impartial men, too great for the vast task that was being undertaken.

At the last moment the Opposition succeeded in getting up a rival syndicate headed by Sir William P. Howland, which offered to do the work on conditions more favourable to the government. Macdonald denounced their attempt as a "disingenuous and discreditable trick," and flatly refused to take any notice of an offer made, after the signature of the contract, by a company whose members had made no effort to tender while the offer was open.

The Canadian Pacific Company forthwith addressed itself to the work with extraordinary vigour. Over considerable sections of the line all previous records of speedy railway construction were eclipsed. The greatest public spirit was shown by individual directors; Donald Smith faced beggary and threw his all into the work of construction.

Even so, the resources of the company proved insufficient, and the government on several occasions were compelled to come to its aid with loans and subventions. Many of the more cautious Conservatives proved restive. Even among the ministers there was discontent, and all Macdonald's tact and Tupper's fiery energy were required to hold their majority together. Stories are told of debates, long and doubtful, in the council chamber, while without white-faced directors, with possible ruin before them, paced the halls waiting for the decision.

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But Macdonald triumphed, and on November 7th, 1885, at Craigellachie, a lonely village of British Columbia, the last spike of the main line was driven by Sir Donald Smith, and on July 24th, 1886, Macdonald himself reached the Pacific by rail from Ottawa. The company had completed its contract with four years to spare.

The operation of the road during the next ten years was almost as great a feat as its construction. The problem before the company was to create a traffic where none had existed before, through nearly two thousand miles of virgin prairie and what Mr. Blake had called a sea of mountains, where there was scarcely any population to serve. Mr. (now Sir William) Van Horne was made president of the company in 1888, and brought to his arduous task an unrivalled skill in railway development. Mining, lumbering and other industries were freely subsidized or otherwise encouraged along the route; branch lines were built; land settlement assisted; one fleet of steamships was placed upon the Pacific and another on the Great Lakes; rate wars were successfully waged with American rivals, and by degrees, through many anxious days, one of the greatest and most prosperous railway systems of the world was firmly established. What the success of the enterprise meant to Canada in establishing the credit of the country and developing its resources is well known. Two parallel transcontin-



Building the Canadian Pacific Railway

From the drawing by C. W. Jefferys

THE NORTH-WEST REBELLION

ental lines now (1907) in course of rapid construction; a fourth projected; an immense inflow of immigration; an annual output of grain amounting to a hundred millions of bushels; expanding fleets of steamships upon the Atlantic, the Pacific and the Great Lakes;—all these are triumphant witnesses to the wisdom and foresight which lay behind the splendid audacity of Macdonald, Tupper, Lord Strathcona and the group of men who carried through this national undertaking.

Before the completion of the railway its military value was put to the test. On March 28th, 1885, word arrived at Ottawa that two days before a force of mounted police and volunteers had been attacked at Duck Lake by the half-breeds and compelled to retreat with heavy loss. A new rebellion had broken out, and it must be acknowledged that the circumstances which led up to it are not creditable to the Conservative government. It will be necessary briefly to rehearse the facts of the case.

Under the Manitoba Act two hundred and forty acres of land had been awarded in fee simple to every half-breed resident born before July 1st, 1870. Nothing was done, however, to extinguish by grant or purchase the title of their brethren further west in the Territories, and the complaints of the little band who had settled along the South Saskatchewan in the neighbourhood of the forts

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grew louder and louder. The story was repeated of lethargy and inefficiency on the one side; of ignorance and suspicion on the other.

The *métis*, in accordance with their ancestral custom borrowed from Lower Canada, had occupied long strips of land, each with a narrow frontage on the river. The Dominion surveyors, who came among them, parcelled out the land in neat squares, and paid scant attention to the complaints of the settlers. Ottawa was far away, and the premier, who would naturally have been sympathetic, was busy with what seemed larger questions nearer home. Once he roused himself, and in 1879 an Act was passed awarding grants to the half-breeds, but, for reasons difficult to explain, nothing was done. Nor were the wrongs of the *métis* confined to the unsettled state of their tenure. Many of the white settlers were undesirable; many of the local government officials were party hacks "totally unqualified for their positions," according to Bishop Taché. If Ottawa was far away "hungry partisans who mark the new and defenceless territory as their perquisite"¹ were on the spot. "Riel put his fighting men in his first line," wrote Lord Minto, "but in his second line we may perhaps find the disappointed contractor, the disappointed white land shark, the disappointed white farmer."²

¹ Goldwin Smith.

² *Nineteenth Century*, 1885.

THE NORTH-WEST REBELLION

The *métis* had constituted a most valuable connecting link between the white invaders and the old lords of the soil. Blackfoot and Cree now grew restless as they saw the discontent of their friends and leaders. Nor is a darker shadow absent. The debauchery of low whites, and their unfair dealing, added fuel to Indian passion. A rising of the prairie tribes, who had not yet experienced the generous treatment since accorded to them by the Dominion, was imminent.

The mutterings of the coming storm grew louder. Petitions poured into the Department of the Interior, to be pigeon-holed and neglected. Bishop Taché pleaded the cause of the scattered people whom he loved so well. Charles Mair, the author, who was living at Prince Albert in close proximity to the half-breeds, came on several occasions to Ottawa to impress on the authorities the seriousness of the situation. Macdonald heard him courteously, recognized the justice of the case which he stated, and made a passing attempt to stimulate his colleague at the Interior into action. But counsels were divided. Two ministers, who visited the country, heard from their flatterers that all was going well, and reported that nothing serious need be feared.

Such was the situation when in 1884 the half-breeds of the St. Laurent settlement sent a deputation on a weary foot journey of seven hundred miles to their old leader, Louis Riel, who had

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for some years been living quietly in Montana. In his fiery and fanatical brain ambition seems to have mingled with his old idea of a western theocracy, French and Catholic, free from the defiling taint of the Englishman and the heretic. But though he returned with the deputation to the Saskatchewan, nothing more than constitutional agitation was anticipated, till, after one or two scattered outbreaks of lawlessness, the affair at Duck Lake set the whole country ablaze.

In face of the thought of an Indian rising, party divisions were hushed and troops were sent forward under Major-General Middleton, the general officer commanding the Canadian militia. The citizen soldiery of Canada fought well in a series of small engagements; on May 12th the rebel camp was stormed at Batoche and three days later Riel surrendered. He was tried for high treason, condemned, and, after several reprieves granted in order to test his sanity, he was hanged on November 16th in the yard of the Mounted Police Barracks at Regina. Fanatic he doubtless was, but he was no coward, and he met his fate with something of the high constancy of a martyr.

Such a circumstance could not fail to arouse the latent jealousies between Ontario and Quebec, French and English, Protestant and Catholic. To Ontario, Riel was either a twice convicted traitor, or an American fillibuster. The powerful Orange order recalled the murder of Scott at Fort Garry,

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and cried aloud for the punishment of his murderer.

To no small section of Quebec, on the other hand, Riel appeared as the most heroic of all the *métis*, the upholder of their race, religion and language; consequently when Macdonald refused to interfere with the course of law, an ominous revolt broke out among the Quebec Conservatives. The position of both political parties now became extremely difficult. The Opposition at first endeavoured to make capital out of the undoubted defects in administration which had in part brought on the rebellion, and on July 6th Mr. Blake spoke for several hours in support of a motion of want of confidence. He had material for argument, but the progress of events soon threw mere debate into the background. The Liberal leader in Quebec was Mr. Honore Mercier, the most brilliant, fascinating and unscrupulous politician that the provincial politics of Canada has produced. With consummate skill he formed an alliance between the clericals and the "Nationalistes"; the Liberals, so long under the ban of the Church, found themselves suddenly its allies. In the flood of feeling that had been aroused Mercier saw his political opportunity and turned all his influence as Liberal leader under these new conditions towards the protection of Riel.

Amid this swelling and raging tide, Macdonald stood firm. When a life-long friend, unconnected

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with either party, urged on him the need of mercy, in order to conciliate Quebec, the old man turned on him with toss of head and stamp of foot, all the lion in him roused. "He shall hang," he said fiercely, "though every dog in Quebec bark in his favour." He would have no more of this firebrand who had twice set the Dominion in a blaze, twice attempted to undo in one mad hour the work of a generation. Had political expediency been consulted it would doubtless have dictated the same decision, for Ontario was at as white a heat as Quebec. The *Toronto Mail*, the official Conservative organ, declared that rather than submit to the yoke of the French-Canadians "Ontario would smash Confederation into its original fragments, preferring that the dream of a united Canada should be shattered forever, than that unity should be purchased at the price of equity."

CHAPTER XII

PROVINCIAL RIGHTS

MACDONALD'S preference for a legislative rather than a federal union was strongly put forward at the Quebec conference. In submitting the result of that conference to the parliament of the old provinces of Canada in 1865 he stated it anew. "As regards the comparative advantage of a legislative and a federal union, I have never hesitated to state my own opinions. I have again and again stated in the House that, if practicable, I thought a legislative union would be preferable. I have always contended that if we could agree to have one government and one parliament legislating for the whole of these peoples, it would be the best, the cheapest, the most vigorous, and the strongest system of government we could adopt." The explicit way in which he at the same time publicly announced his conviction, as the result of the conference, that a legislative union was impracticable, and that he yielded his own judgment to the general opinion, renders quite incredible the statement made with some hesitation by the biographer of Sir Georges Cartier that Macdonald again tried during the negotiations of 1866-7 in London to modify to this end the British North America Act, and was only prevented from doing so by the resolute opposition of Cartier.

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But the original bias of his mind on this question, so frankly expressed, explains the fact that his general inclination in interpreting the constitution and in working the machinery of government, was to limit as far as possible the area of provincial rights, and to concentrate control in the hands of the general government. The assertion of State sovereignty had lately led on to secession in the United States, and the union had only been maintained at the price of one of the most frightful wars of modern times. He therefore strove conscientiously to save the Dominion from a danger written so large in contemporary history. More than once he failed to carry out his views, and it may well be that he exaggerated the danger and made too little allowance for other considerations. Provincial patriotism was enlisted in vigorous opposition to what sometimes looked like federal aggression, and more than once his purpose was overruled. It may fairly be claimed that his prevailing motive was a larger patriotism which aimed at national consolidation. It is yet too soon to form a final judgment of his policy on this difficult question. Time and experience alone can decide whether the advocate of centralized strength or those who championed local independence most contributed to the permanent good of his country. We may hope that Canada has found the golden mean between conflicting ideas. Fortunately our empire offers opportunities to carry out political experi-

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ments on varying lines and on a great scale. Under the federal system adopted by Australia the importance and independence given to the individual State furnish a strong contrast to the ideas which prevailed in Macdonald's mind. In the southern commonwealth by general admission they have, so far, distinctly militated against the efficiency of the general government, and also against the sense of national unity. It remains to be proved whether counterbalancing advantages have been gained.

In the process of harmonizing federal and provincial rights, constitutional points of delicacy and difficulty arose, and in dealing with them it can scarcely be said that Macdonald did not sometimes allow party considerations to influence his better judgment.

In December, 1876, the Hon. Luc Letellier de St. Just, a senator of the Dominion, and an exceedingly active Liberal politician, was appointed by the Mackenzie administration lieutenant-governor of the province of Quebec, at that time under the control of a Conservative majority and ministry in the local legislature. The relations of the lieutenant-governor and his advisers were from the first marked by mutual distrust, and finally resulted in a quarrel which grew more and more bitter as time went on. The climax was reached when an important measure was passed through the legislature without having been previously submitted to the governor, and proclamations over

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his signature were issued with which his first acquaintance was made on their appearance in print. Angered at these gross breaches of courtesy M. Letellier abruptly dismissed the ministry on the ground that they had acted "contrary to the rights and prerogatives of the Crown." The act was probably only that of a high-spirited, impulsive man, irritated beyond endurance by the unseemly conduct of his ministers. But it was not difficult for opponents to believe that the dismissal of ministers possessing a majority in the legislature, the formation of a new administration, and the dissolution which followed, resulting in the return of a small Liberal majority, were all measures carried out as moves in the party game, since the control of the local legislature might considerably influence the coming Dominion election.

In bringing the matter before parliament Macdonald, then in Opposition, did so on high constitutional ground in a resolution which affirmed that "the recent dismissal by the lieutenant-governor of Quebec of his ministers was, under the circumstances, unwise and subversive of the position accorded to advisers of the Crown since the concession of the principle of responsible government to the British North American colonies." This proposition was maintained in a moderate and powerful speech in which he quoted a long array of precedents from British and colonial history to prove "the principle that so long as the

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ministry of the day have the confidence of the people they should have the confidence of the Crown." The resolution introduced by Macdonald was voted down in the Commons by Mr. Mackenzie and his Liberal majority, chiefly on the ground that the intervention of the Dominion parliament in the case would amount to interference with provincial autonomy. A corresponding motion was, however, carried in the senate. Meanwhile M. Joly de Lotbinière, the Liberal leader, who had assumed full responsibility for the action of the lieutenant-governor, was sustained in the provincial election by a majority of one, so that the lieutenant-governor could claim a nominal popular endorsement for his action, and also could shelter himself under the principle which Macdonald had upheld. At the ensuing session of parliament, when the Conservatives were again in power, the motion of censure was renewed by a French Conservative member in precisely the same terms as had been used by Macdonald, and was carried by a large majority. Such a vote of censure by the federal parliament necessarily involved the dismissal of the lieutenant-governor, and advice to this effect was tendered by Sir John and his cabinet to the governor-general, the Marquis of Lorne, whose approval was necessary for executive action. His Excellency considered the constitutional point of such significance and delicacy that he deemed it expedient to submit the advice of his council

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and the whole case with attendant circumstances, to Her Majesty's government for their consideration and instruction. In doing so he observed that the federal system being unknown in Great Britain and her colonies till introduced by the British North America Act of 1867, there were no precedents to serve as guidance in the case, which was of special importance as involving the future relations between the Dominion and provincial governments so far as the office of lieutenant-governor was concerned.

A great outcry followed from the Quebec Conservatives and other extremists of the party at this "subversion of the principles of responsible government" on the part of the governor-general, in reserving for imperial consideration a case in which ministers had given definite advice and in which imperial interests were not concerned. Macdonald defended the constitutionality of the governor-general's course, but at the same time said, "I would have been pleased and gratified, and I think it would have been well, had our advice been at once accepted."

The home government very prudently declined to interfere, and on July 25th, 1879, Letellier was dismissed from office. Broken in health from the anxieties through which he had passed, he died in the following year.

As the province of Quebec had, though only by a small majority, sustained the action of the

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lieutenant-governor, his dismissal by the federal cabinet seems high-handed and unwarranted, and as the reference to the home government was with the consent of Macdonald and his colleagues, and probably at their suggestion, they should have vigorously defended the governor-general from any aspersions cast upon him. There is reason to believe that Macdonald privately disapproved of the bitterness of his Quebec followers, but hesitated to thwart them, and thought it necessary to sacrifice Letellier to their demands. It was perhaps one of those cases of which he himself said, "There are often times when I do things which are against my conscience, and which I know are wrong; but if I did not make allowance for the weakness of human nature, my party would turn me out of power, and those who took my place would manage things worse." But to assume that others will do worse, as an excuse for doing ill, is to take dangerous moral ground, however it may be regarded from the standpoint of politics.

While to Macdonald it was as much a matter of preference as of interpretation of the constitution to limit, so far as he legally and rightly could, the powers of the provincial legislatures, which he looked upon as a hindrance to his ideal of a united Dominion, there were others who took a widely different view. Foremost among these was the Hon. (afterwards Sir) Oliver Mowat. Under his direction the province of Ontario maintained a long

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and obstinate contest with the federal government, ending in a victory for the provincial point of view, and in almost the only serious constitutional defeat that Macdonald ever suffered. Oliver Mowat had been one of the three Reformers in the coalition ministry of 1864, and had resigned in the same year to accept the position of vice-chancellor of Upper Canada. Now, after eight years of service on the bench, he reëntered political life to become premier of Ontario and leader of the Liberal party in that province in succession to the Hon. Edward Blake, who had withdrawn from the local legislature on the passing of a bill abolishing dual representation, in other words, the right previously enjoyed by members of the Dominion parliament of being elected also to the provincial legislature.

Mr. Mowat had in early years been an articled clerk in the law office of Macdonald in Kingston, and, in spite of political differences, retained both affection and regard for his old chief. Though the current of Canadian politics had led him to identify himself with the Liberals, his mind was essentially that of a Scottish Conservative, thrifty, honest, and cautious almost to excess. His administrative ideals were those of the economical John Sandfield Macdonald ; but he was also a keen and sagacious constitutional lawyer, and during his long premiership of twenty-four years did more than anyone else to settle the relations of the province to the Dominion. The quarrel was in no sense personal,

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though the keenness of the political struggle sometimes gave it that appearance. As a matter of fact several of Mr. Mowat's contests on behalf of his native province were waged against the Liberal administration of Alexander Mackenzie. In one of these, arising out of a protest made against the validity of an Act passed by the Ontario legislature "to amend the law respecting the sale of fermented or spirituous liquors," principles were laid down in 1883 by the judicial committee of the Privy Council which in their bearing on the status of the provincial legislatures were of the very highest importance. Their Lordships held that the local legislatures were "in no sense delegates of, or acting under, any mandate from the imperial parliament. When the British North America Act enacted that there should be a legislature for Ontario, and that its legislative assembly should have exclusive authority to make laws for the province, and for provincial purposes in relation to matters enumerated in section ninety-two of the British North America Act, it conferred powers not in any sense to be exercised in delegation from, or as agents of, the imperial parliament, but authority as plenary and as ample—within the limits presented by section ninety-two—as the imperial parliament in the plenitude of its powers possessed or could bestow. Within these limits of subject and area the local legislature is supreme, and it has the same authority as the imperial parliament or the

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parliament of the Dominion would have had under like circumstances." In this view Sir John Macdonald's minister of justice, the Hon. John S. D. Thompson, afterwards concurred, and it may now be regarded as established.

The most important dispute of all, that about the boundaries of Ontario, began as far back as 1871, when Sir John Macdonald at Ottawa, and Sandfield Macdonald at Toronto, appointed, by friendly agreement, commissioners to define the northern and western boundary of that province.

Soon after a Reform government came into power in Ontario, and Macdonald instructed the Dominion commissioner to claim as the northern boundary the height of land dividing the waters which flow into Hudson Bay from those emptying into the valley of the Great Lakes, and in the west a line to coincide with $89^{\circ}, 9', 30''$ w. longitude. Had this view been adopted, the area of the province would have been one hundred and sixteen thousand seven hundred and eighty-two square miles, and its western limit would have been fixed at six and one-half miles east of Port Arthur.

On the refusal of the provincial premier to accede to this arrangement Macdonald proposed an appeal to the judicial committee of the Privy Council, but Mr. Blake, while not absolutely refusing this offer, preferred a commission sitting on this side of the Atlantic. Under the Liberal régime at Ottawa, a reference to arbitration was arranged, and Sir

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Francis Hincks was appointed by the Dominion, Chief-Justice R. A. Harrison by the province, and Sir Edward Thornton, G.C.B., British minister at Washington, by the two other arbiters, to decide the dispute. By their unanimous award made in 1878 the western boundary was placed at $95^{\circ}, 14', 38''$ w. longitude, and the northern was determined to run along the line of lakes and rivers far north of the height of land connecting the Winnipeg River with the mouth of the Albany River in James Bay. By this award the area of the province was increased from one hundred and sixteen thousand seven hundred and eighty-two square miles to two hundred and sixty thousand eight hundred and sixty-two.

On Macdonald's return to power a few months later he refused to accept this award, and, assuming federal rights over the disputed territory, he proceeded to grant Dominion licenses to cut timber therein, almost wholly, it was asserted, to supporters of the Conservative party. In addition to his general wish to curtail the powers of the local legislatures, and to secure for the Dominion such a source of revenue as the Crown lands, he probably desired to fight with their own weapons the government of Ontario, which had in 1878 thrown the whole weight of its influence and patronage into the scale against him. Moreover the dispute stirred up anew the long existing rivalry between Ontario and Quebec, the latter objecting strongly

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to so great an aggrandizement of Ontario without the grant of some equivalent for herself. In making this general statement an exception should be recorded in the attitude of Sir Wilfrid (then Mr.) Laurier, who had succeeded to the Liberal leadership in parliament, and who in that position courageously faced the opinion of his own province in supporting Ontario's claims based on the results of the arbitration.

In 1881 a new factor appeared. The province of Manitoba passed an Act consenting, as was necessary under the British North America Act, to the proposed eastward extension of its bounday, when defined by federal authority. This was doubtless done at the suggestion of the Ottawa government, which soon after had a bill passed assigning the additional territory to Manitoba. This preference of Manitoba to Ontario is explained by the fact that in the older provinces the Crown lands are under the control of the local government, whereas in the Prairie Province, created by Macdonald in 1870, they are under federal administration. Mowat suggested an appeal to the Privy Council, but it was now Macdonald's turn to haggle, and he did so with great ingenuity, suggesting a reference to the Supreme Court of Canada, or that some great English legal luminary, such as Lord Cairns, should be invited to act as sole arbiter. In 1883 both provinces endeavoured to take possession of the disputed territory.

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The Ontario district of Algoma and the Manitoba constituency of Varennes overlapped, and on September 28th each elected a member to their respective legislatures. At intervals during the summer, encounters more or less serious took place around Rat Portage. The Manitoba police arrested an Ontario tavernkeeper and were themselves arrested by the constables of Ontario. Such a condition of affairs was ludicrous and intolerable, and in the next year the governments of Manitoba and Ontario agreed on a special case, which was tried in July, 1884, before the judicial committee of the Privy Council. To this course the federal government agreed, "so far as it related to the definition of the westerly boundary of Ontario, but not so far as it related to the title to the lands thereby brought into question." After a vast display on both sides of historical, topographical and legal knowledge, the case was decided in favour of Ontario and the award of the arbiters of 1878 practically confirmed. On August 11th, 1884, this decision was ratified by an imperial order-in-council.

Macdonald was not yet beaten. He had expressly reserved the question of the proprietary right to these lands, and in 1882 had assured a Toronto audience that "even if all the territory Mr. Mowat asks for were awarded to Ontario, there is not one stick of timber, one acre of land, or one lump of lead, iron or coal that does not

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belong to the Dominion government." This rather wildly expressed opinion he based on the ground that the lands were Indian lands, conveyed by them to the Crown. Finally a test case was argued in July, 1888, before the Privy Council, and decided in favour of Ontario, on the ground that the title to the land was "vested in the Crown at the time of the union; the Indian title was a mere incumbrance or burden." In each instance Mowat pleaded his own case with skill and erudition, and vanquished the foremost constitutional lawyers of the Conservative party. He was powerfully helped by the views on federal government and administration held by Lord Watson, whose masterful mind was at that time supreme on the judicial committee. But nothing more conclusively shows the relative greatness in Canadian politics of Sir John Macdonald than that a struggle which marks a culminating point in the career of Sir Oliver Mowat is in his but an incident, and defeat, even on so large a question, a matter of secondary importance. As it turned out his original insistence upon an appeal to the judicial committee of the Privy Council ultimately prevailed.

Connected with this question of provincial rights is the Franchise Act of 1885. By section forty-one of the British North America Act the provincial lists of voters were to be used until the federal parliament saw fit to take further action. While the qualifications demanded differed slightly in the

FRANCHISE ACT OF 1885

various provinces, and while several attempts at unification were made, no serious difficulty arose, and it was not till 1885 that Macdonald resolved to establish a uniform suffrage. As he wrote to Lord Carnarvon, "The provinces had begun to tinker at their electoral franchises, and in some cases legislated with the direct object of affecting returns of the federal parliament, so that the independence of that parliament was threatened to such a degree that it had to be dealt with."

In consequence, a bill was introduced, the chief provisions of which were: (1) uniformity of the suffrage; (2) a property qualification; (3) federal officers for the preparation and revision of voters' lists; (4) enfranchisement of Indians with the necessary property qualifications. To the enfranchisement of single women (with the necessary property qualifications) he avowed himself personally favourable, but he did not introduce it into the bill. The Opposition believed, not altogether without reason, that the measure was aimed at them, and fought desperately, denouncing the bill as expensive, unnecessary, an assault on provincial rights, and an attempt through the appointment of revising officers to exert underhand influence upon the compilation of the lists. That these officers would be willing instruments of wrongdoing, appeared to many critics of the bill to be a natural, if not necessary, assumption. Violent scenes took place in the House and a policy of

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obstruction was deliberately adopted. Twenty-five divisions occurred during a single sitting. Some members of the Opposition spoke more than twenty times, and at inordinate length. One member read to the Speaker the whole British North America Act in French. A single session lasted from three p.m. on Thursday till midnight on Saturday. Eventually the bill was passed, by a vote of eighty-seven to thirty-eight, though not without important amendments, the property qualification being lowered, and the enfranchisement of the Indians of Manitoba, British Columbia, and the North-West Territories abandoned.

Though the bill was one on which Macdonald set great store and which he may almost be said to have forced upon his party, it was not wholly a success. The revising officers in nearly all cases did their work fairly and well, and little if any injustice was done to the Liberals. But it proved expensive and cumbrous, and many Conservatives were not sorry to see its repeal a few years later by the Liberal administration of Sir Wilfrid Laurier.

CHAPTER XIII

A LONG LEASE OF POWER

1878 to 1891

THE last chapters have dealt separately with the most important of the lines of policy carried out by Macdonald after his restoration to power in 1878. From that time to his death in 1891 he held the premiership of the Dominion, and was, as no man had ever been before, or has been since, the determining force in the administration of the government and the development of the country. His countrymen, once having forgiven his greatest political fault, restored to him and renewed again and again a confidence almost unique in the history of constitutional government. During these thirteen years there were three general elections, in 1882, 1887 and 1891. Twice in that time the Liberal party changed its leadership in the effort to strengthen its position and make headway against him. Mr. Mackenzie made way for Edward Blake in 1880, and on the resignation of the latter in 1887, Mr. (now Sir Wilfrid) Laurier succeeded to the difficult post.

Change of policy, it must be said, was tried by the Liberals as well as change of leaders. Commercial union with the United States was brought forward as an alternative for the system of pro-

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tection which was the note of Macdonald's National Policy, and for a time the new cry seemed likely to catch the popular ear. Later, "unrestricted reciprocity" was adopted as a term less repugnant to Canadian sentiment. But change of leader and change of policy alike failed to displace the veteran of so many political fights, the skilful wielder of so many kinds of influence. Macdonald's name had become one to conjure with, and so long as he lived the Conservative party maintained an unbroken, though perhaps not wholly unshaken, hold on the country. This was due partly to the extraordinary affection and devotion that he inspired among his followers in parliament and the country; partly to his own consummate political strategy. Still more may it be attributed, there can be no reasonable doubt, to the fact that the country at large credited him with a deeper and truer insight into its real needs and aspirations than was ascribed to his opponents. The course of events since that time may be said to have amply justified this opinion. All the greater lines of policy which he initiated or directed have become fixed in the Canadian system. Protection to native industries—the so-called National Policy—was adopted in all its main features by the Liberal party on its accession to power in 1896, and has since been maintained with the minimum of dissent from any quarter. The Canadian Pacific Railway, once vigorously denounced as likely to bring

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the country to ruin, has proved not merely one of the most successful of business ventures, an instrument of the first importance for the consolidation of the Dominion and an inspiration to the national life, but it has also been the parent of other vast enterprises looking in like manner to the development of the interior of the continent. The policy which he advocated both in England and Canada, of welding the whole empire together by preferential trade, has steadily grown, has been adopted by most of the greater colonies, has been put into actual practice by the Liberal party of Canada, and, in spite of serious obstacles arising from the commercial system of the mother country, seems to be making headway there also.

The main basis of his power, therefore, and of the hold which he retained for so long a time upon the confidence of the Canadian people must unquestionably be considered to have lain in his solid qualities as a statesman, his sound judgment in dealing with the present, and foresight in regard to the future. But these qualities, which fix a statesman's place in history, would scarcely have carried him successfully through his long administrative career had they not been supplemented by others equally rare: keen insight into human nature—a singular capacity for the management of men—skill in parliamentary tactics—naturally high spirits which made light of difficulties—fertility of resource in dealing with them when they

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arose, and a personal liking for the political game, however perplexing and complicated it might become. No one knew so well as he the truth of his own saying that "Canada is a hard country to govern." When we remember that his cabinets, selected with a view to the representation of all important interests, contained Liberals and Conservatives—men not only of British and French birth, but with British and French prejudices—Roman Catholics and Orangemen—advocates of Irish Home Rule and keen opponents of that measure—men from provinces thousands of miles apart and with widely divergent interests—it is impossible not to admire the skill with which he drew and held them together in the early days of Confederation, before the national sentiment of Canada had as yet been consolidated.

That he did not fear to have strong men around him was amply proved in the selections made for his earlier cabinets. If this was not so apparent in some of his later ministries the fault may have lain, not so much in any fear of strong colleagues, as in the lack of material on which to draw. It must be remembered that he was bound to make his cabinets represent not only different provinces, but also different interests, so that his field of choice was often extremely limited. "Let the country give me good material," he used to say, "and I will give you strong cabinets." Indeed no small part of his success was due to the care he used in

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selecting colleagues of ability and in giving each an adequate opportunity for the exercise of his special talents. So, also, the devotion felt towards him by his followers sprang largely from his loyalty to them through the many vicissitudes of political life, and the recognition which he was always ready to give to meritorious service. No doubt the strongest of the men who came around him when Confederation was established had already been marked out by public opinion in their different provinces as natural leaders. But it was the most signal proof of Macdonald's ruling ability that the leadership assigned to him in 1867 among this group of powerful men was at no time questioned and was steadily maintained and confirmed in the long series of succeeding years.

Of the men who assisted Macdonald in working out the confederation of Canada and securing the large results which flowed from that epoch-making measure, three at least demand special mention in any biography of their leader, however brief, both for the weight which they brought to his councils, the length and importance of their service, and the loyalty of their allegiance throughout life to himself and to the national ideals which he and they held in common.

Circumstances had drawn him at an early period into close alliance with Georges Etienne Cartier, and it was the coöperation of the two men which

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for years made the government of the country possible in the difficult period before Confederation. Cartier was a typical French-Canadian, and commanded, as no other man of his generation, the confidence of his compatriots. In his impetuous youth he had joined in the rebellion of 1837, and after the defeat of the rebels he fled with Papineau to the United States. He returned under the general amnesty of 1839, and from that time forward sought to maintain the rights and forward the interests of his people by strictly constitutional means. Attracted by the largeness of spirit and the readiness for conciliation and compromise which he found in Macdonald, he formed with him a political alliance based on equal consideration for the rightful claims of both nationalities. The key to Canadian politics for many a year rested in the fact that the French-Canadians trusted Cartier, and Cartier trusted Macdonald. This alliance, strengthened as time went on by sincere personal friendship, lasted through all the anxious years that led up to Confederation. It was through Cartier that Macdonald so long retained his hold on Quebec. Without Cartier's loyal help it would scarcely have been possible, when the effort for union came, to allay the anxieties of French-Canadians lest they should be swallowed up and their individuality be lost in the large proposed confederacy, plainly destined in the course of time to be preponderantly British.

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One shadow, it must be acknowledged, did come at last to mar for a time the friendship which had so long existed between the two men. When Confederation had become an accomplished fact, and the sovereign wished to recognize the labours of the men who had brought it about, Macdonald was made a K.C.B., while only a C.B. was assigned to Cartier and the other leading delegates. To Cartier this was a stinging disappointment, conscious as he was of having performed the most conspicuous and difficult feat of all in having by his personal address and influence won over to the support of Confederation a timorous and reluctant province, which might have proved hopelessly obstructive. He felt it also, no doubt, as a slur upon the French race whose chief representative he was, and whose equality with their English-speaking fellow-subjects was a principle on which no shadow of doubt could be allowed to rest. He blamed Macdonald for the discrimination, though apparently it was entirely due to the action of the imperial authorities, as no intimation had previously been given of Her Majesty's intention to any of the recipients of honours. The mistake was remedied in the following year, when, doubtless on Macdonald's recommendation, Cartier was created a baronet of the United Kingdom, a dignity higher than that assigned to Sir John himself. The correspondence of later years shows that complete cordiality was restored between the old

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friends. When Cartier was defeated in the election of 1872, in Montreal East, an event which hastened his end, Macdonald wrote to Lord Lisgar: "I do not anticipate that he will live a year, and with all his faults, or, rather, with all his little eccentricities, he will not leave so good a Frenchman behind him—certainly not one who can fill his place in public life. I cannot tell you how I sorrow at this. We have acted together since 1854, and never had a serious difference."

Macdonald at once found a new and safe seat for his defeated colleague. Cartier went to England in the autumn of 1872, in the hope of having his health restored, but died there in 1873, before the crash of the Pacific scandal, for which he was in no small measure responsible. To the last the two old colleagues were in the most intimate and friendly correspondence. "Cartier was as bold as a lion. He was just the man I wanted. But for him Confederation could not have been carried." Such was the tribute Macdonald paid to him on the day when he unveiled the statue of his friend at Ottawa.

The Maritime Provinces, fruitful in vigorous political thinkers, contributed for Macdonald's assistance two men of altogether exceptional ability. Charles Tupper was not included in the first Dominion cabinet for reasons which have been mentioned; but, once in office, became the most powerful of the colleagues who helped Macdonald

SIR CHARLES TUPPER

to carry out his large schemes of constructive statesmanship. He and Macdonald first met at the Quebec conference, when the latter at once recognized in the Nova Scotian leader the qualities which, having placed him at the head of affairs in his own province, were destined to make him a power in the larger field of Dominion politics. The recognition of strength and common purpose was mutual; and before the conference had broken up the two men had made an informal alliance, which was strictly adhered to through all the vicissitudes of the coming years.

Never was Macdonald's intuitive capacity for discovering the essential man for the work that had to be done, exercised more intelligently than in this case. In the reconciliation of Nova Scotia to Confederation, in carrying out a great, expensive and hazardous railway policy, in the establishment of a national fiscal system, in making Canadian expansion compatible with complete allegiance to the empire, the aid which Macdonald received from Sir Charles Tupper can scarcely be exaggerated. In him great natural ability and power as a platform speaker were united with a splendid optimism about his country, a courage that feared nothing, and a resoluteness of purpose which despised any obstacle with which he could be confronted.

If Macdonald looked upon Cartier as an essential factor in effecting Confederation, he would

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probably have felt no less strongly in reference to the part which Tupper played in carrying out the great railway policy which confirmed and completed the work of union. The speeches by which he defended that policy—the forecasts which he made of north-western development—were at the time ridiculed by the Liberal party in parliament and the Liberal press in the country as exaggerated and absurd. Though the fulfilment of his prophecies was somewhat delayed, he has lived to see his critics put to confusion by the ample justification of his high hopes which time and events have brought about. It is only fair to say that he has also received the frank apology and recantation of more than one great organ of public opinion which once denounced his projects as visionary and fraught with ruin to the country.

Of scarcely less influence in moulding the early history of the Dominion was Samuel Leonard Tilley, who at first took his seat in the cabinet as minister of customs, and later for many years was minister of finance. Previous to Confederation he had long been the foremost figure in the public life of New Brunswick, and it was his weight of character and tenacity of purpose which more than anything else determined that wavering province to commit itself finally to the scheme. Ability in administration and patriotic zeal were in him combined with a strength of moral purpose and a steadfast uprightness which enabled him to go

CARTIER, TUPPER AND TILLEY

through a long political career with less of the soil of politics than any of his contemporaries of equal standing. It was upon Tilley's financial ability and the confidence which his character inspired among business men that Macdonald chiefly relied when it became necessary to put into actual operation the national policy of protection for native industries. The system which he introduced has remained the settled policy of the country, accepted practically by all parties, for more than a quarter of a century.

It is perhaps the highest of all tributes to the genius of Macdonald that he was able to draw to his support a group of men of the weight and worth of Cartier, Tupper and Tilley, and retain through a long series of years their loyal devotion to him as a leader. Each in his own way a commanding personality, they were of one accord in following Macdonald with unswerving fidelity through all the vicissitudes of his fortune. Along with him they grasped and held tenaciously the idea of a great and united Canada forming an integral part of the empire, and to that end devoted the work of their lives. Many co-workers assisted in the great task. But probably every one of the long list of ministers who served with Macdonald in the Dominion cabinet would have agreed that to Cartier, Tupper and Tilley was due a niche in Canadian history peculiar to themselves, and that something would be lacking in the perspective

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of Macdonald's career if their names were not specially associated with it.

The material available for making any final record of Macdonald's life during his last long lease of power, is in some respects scanty. Mr. Pope, to whom his papers were intrusted, makes no attempt to cover this period exhaustively, believing that the time has not yet arrived for giving to the public documents connected with a period so controversial. Seeing that many of the actors upon the stage of public affairs at that time are still alive, the wisdom of this decision cannot be questioned. It is therefore only possible to follow Macdonald during these years along those lines of his life which were fully open to the public. Here the material is so abundant as to perplex a biographer and almost to defy any attempt at analysis or condensation. His name was the centre around which the political journalism of the time revolved from day to day. The cartoonists of the comic press found in his well-known features their most popular and effective study. The pages of Hansard from 1878 to 1891 reveal as nothing else can his tireless devotion to parliamentary life. In those official records, the reader recognizes his unfailing industry, the variety and minuteness of his knowledge of public affairs—the versatility of his mind—his readiness in debate and repartee—his adroit management of the parliamentary machine through which he worked out his purposes.

THE REDISTRIBUTION BILL

The election of 1882 turned chiefly upon the endorsement of the National Policy. The friends of the policy claimed that doubt about its continuance prevented capitalists from investing their money in the country. The system had now been in operation for three years: the country was prosperous, and Macdonald had every reason to look forward to the contest with equanimity. The Opposition, however, unconvinced by facts, still viewed the matter in a different light. "The N. P. is unpopular," its leading journal said, "with the producing classes. . . . A protective tariff must necessarily mean death—or, which is the same thing, that living death signified by a state of non-expansion—to all Canadian manufacturers." As regards the popularity or unpopularity of the National Policy, something remained to be learnt from the coming election, and still more from others to follow. Meantime, Sir John was preparing a measure intended to make assurance doubly sure, and one which he relied on his parliamentary majority to carry.

The fourth session of the fourth parliament of Canada had begun on February 9th, 1882. On April 28th, Sir John brought in a bill "to adjust the representation in the House of Commons." A bill of this nature had been rendered necessary by the census of the year before, which had shown that Ontario was entitled, on the basis of population, to four more members than it actually had ;

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but it was not necessary that it should have been converted, as it was, into a means for placing the Liberals at a still greater disadvantage in the electoral struggle about to ensue. Certain of the changes proposed were natural and proper, and others plainly desirable ; but it has been generally admitted that the Act, as a whole, involved an unjustifiable manipulation of the constituencies. Mr. Blake, at that time leader of the Opposition, said that “ the honourable gentleman, having a great duty to discharge, one which demanded that he should discharge it upon principles of general public justice, has determined to use his majority to load the dice in the political game which is shortly to be played.” In point of fact, county boundaries were roughly altered, and townships flung this way or that in the attempt to alter the political balance. To Liberal constituencies were added Liberal townships from other constituencies previously doubtful, which thus, by the reduction of the Liberal vote, became Conservative. Conservative municipalities were in like manner detached from counties whose majority could be lessened with impunity, and joined to others which trembled in the balance. Macdonald humorously, but too audaciously, described the process as “ hiving the Gr̃ts,” and more seriously defended it as paying back in their own coin what the Ontario Liberals had similarly done on a previous occasion to the detriment of his party ; but whether he was

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particularly careful not to exceed the measure of previous Liberal misdoing may be doubted. The *Globe* (April 29th, 1882) described it as "an Act to keep the Tory party in power till the next census," and added the vigorous comment : "Even in the United States, with its many examples of vicious legislation, we have never heard of such a villainous act of legislation as this. It strikes at the very root of the representative system." A few days later the same paper published a letter from "A Constant Reader," who had reached, as a Liberal, the depths of political pessimism and despair. "Another mistake," wrote this gentleman, "which our leaders make is this—they seem to think the people are pure. It is a great mistake ; they are as corrupt as the government that represents them at Ottawa. Until the Reformers can score one against Sir John by superior low cunning, they will be beaten at the elections."

The *Globe* reproved its correspondent for these remarks, which nevertheless went broadcast through the country. The suggestion made fell into fruitful soil, if we are to judge by the abundant crop of similar sentiments and principles which sprung up in Ontario a few years later, when to support a Liberal régime ballot-stuffing and other gross forms of electoral trickery brought deep disgrace on Canadian politics. The "gerrymander" did harm by the feeling of unfairness and the desire for retaliation which it stirred up in men's minds. It illus-

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trates the manœuvres to which Sir John Macdonald, despite his intellectual breadth, could on occasion descend. It was an unfair piece of party strategy, and in some constituencies worked as it was intended to do. That it had not more influence on the elections was due to the indignation which the measure excited in the minds of his opponents, and the greater intensity of the efforts they put forth in consequence ; also, it was alleged by some of the Reform journals, to a certain lukewarmness induced in the minds of thoughtful Conservatives who shrunk from accepting the maxim that everything is fair in politics. The Liberals at this time had troubles of their own, for there was open dissension among their leaders. Blake, who was far less hostile to the National Policy than were Mackenzie and Cartwright, found his attempts to conciliate the manufacturers were neutralized by doctrinaire pronouncements on the part of his lieutenants. Still, in a speech delivered a few days before the House closed, he confidently predicted that “an indignant and honest people, of whatever political complexion, is about to resent at the polls the fraud which is attempted to be perpetrated upon it.” Whatever resentment honest people may have felt, the general result was that the government was sustained by a majority of over sixty, very nearly as many as in the last House. The few votes gained by the “gerrymander” might, therefore, well have been spared.

EDWARD BLAKE AND MACDONALD

Amongst the notable incidents of the session of 1882, was the passing by a practically unanimous vote of certain resolutions moved by Mr. Costigan, and supported by Mr. Blake in a very elaborate speech of some hours' duration, recommending the British government to grant Home Rule to Ireland. In the senate alone was there a division, when the vote stood thirty-six "yeas" to six "nays." Sir John Macdonald supported the resolutions in a brief, but not very emphatic, speech, in the course of which he characterized Mr. Blake's oratorical effort as "demagogic" and calculated to do much harm. There was a more pronounced antagonism between the two men than there had been between Sir John and Mackenzie. Both were lawyers; both, in their separate ways, were "intellectuals"; and each was probably conscious of a somewhat deeper penetration by the other of the secret weaknesses of his own character than was altogether comfortable. Sir John never delivered *orations*; Mr. Blake did. It would have been a labour for Sir John to "embroider" a theme, to use a French expression, and in point of fact he never attempted it; Mr. Blake on the other hand had great facility in that line and an unbounded copiousness. Just as heartily as Sir John disliked the long speeches of Mr. Blake, did Mr. Blake dislike the short speeches of Sir John. One or two that the latter delivered in England towards the close of the year 1884 gave his adversary matter for criticism in the ensuing session of

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parliament. Speaking of Canada, Sir John had said that there were no industries materially suffering, and that every industrious man could get a good day's pay for a good day's work—a statement which Mr. Blake did not think warranted by the condition of things in the country, which he asserted was one of general depression. But there was worse. Sir John, impelled by what spirit of mischief there is no guessing, had also said that “any Englishman in coming to Canada, if he was a man of education, invariably joined the Canadian Conservative party, no matter what his home politics may have been.” This Mr. Blake took seriously, and declared to be a gross insult to the Liberal party. In the following year the Liberal leader himself went over to England for a visit of some months—as also did Sir John some three months later—and in a speech delivered at a banquet to Lord Rosebery in Edinburgh, made the acknowledgment that “many British emigrants who are Liberals come to Canada, and of these some become Conservatives in Canadian politics.” If Sir John took the proverbial ell in the statement he made, here at least was the inch, perhaps a little more, that he was entitled to.

Sir John again had the misfortune to incur the censure of Mr. Blake by some remarks he made a day or two before leaving England in the month of January, 1886. On that occasion he said that Canada was ready to join the mother country in

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an offensive and defensive league ; to risk her last man and her last shilling in defence of the empire and the flag. To this Mr. Blake demurred. He declined to accept responsibility for a policy he had no share in moulding ; and if we did not get, and would not take, a voice in shaping the foreign policy of the empire, we should not come under liabilities beyond what our own immediate and direct interest demanded, and should not, he said, be called on to expend our blood and treasure in carrying out jingo schemes, whether of Tory or Liberal politicians, on the other side of the water. These accents have had comparatively recent echoes ; but Sir John in his impulsive way, with no excessive refinements of phrase—he was no great master of language—had probably more nearly expressed the instinct of the Canadian people. It is not uninstrusive to note what, in a broad sense of the word, may be called the ethical differences between these two great political leaders, each with qualities complementary to those of the other. Had fortune but united their efforts, and made them sympathetic co-workers instead of jealous rivals, it seems certain that the effect on Canadian politics and on the status of Canada to-day would have been very beneficial.

The circumstances under which the elections of 1887 were contested, differed materially from those which had prevailed in 1882. The old issues were still under discussion but new ones had been added.

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The second rebellion in the North-West had, as we have seen, been suppressed and its leader Riel had expiated on the scaffold his twice-repeated crime of high treason. Mention has been made of the severe pressure brought to bear upon Sir John Macdonald to stay the sentence of the law, and of his unrelenting firmness in refusing to do so. If there had previously been any division in the cabinet on this painful subject, all trace of it had disappeared when parliament met on February 25th 1886. To appease in some measure racial and religious feeling Mr. Landry, a supporter of the government, moved a resolution affirming "that this House feels it its duty to express its deep regret that the sentence of death passed upon Louis Riel for high treason was allowed to be carried into execution." In the division which followed the "yeas" were fifty-two, the "nays" one hundred and forty-six. The French-Canadian Liberals supported the motion bodily and were joined by seventeen French-Canadian Conservatives. Mr. Blake who, in an earlier discussion, had constructed the famous climax—"Had there been no neglect there would have been no rebellion. If no rebellion, then no arrest. If no arrest, no trial. If no trial, no condemnation. If no condemnation, no execution. They therefore who are responsible for the first are responsible for every link in that fatal chain,"—had later persuaded himself that the death sentence should have been commuted. He accordingly gave

A NEW ELECTION

his vote for Mr. Landry's motion, and by so doing placed himself in opposition—no doubt most conscientiously—to a number of the weightiest men of his own party, including Alexander Mackenzie, Sir Richard Cartwright, William Paterson and John Charlton.

But beyond parliament there was still the appeal to the country to be faced, and none knew better than Sir John that there the Riel difficulty might meet him again under less controllable conditions. Upon that matter, however, he had taken his stand and could only abide the result. On the other great question of the day, that of protection to home industries, he felt that the country was with him. That was probably his chief dependence, for the forces arrayed against him at this moment, both east and west, were certainly not to be despised.

In Quebec, Mercier was triumphant. Nova Scotia was still restless, and in local politics strongly Liberal. In 1886, Sir Oliver Mowat had suddenly dissolved the Ontario legislature, had won a striking victory, and had thrown all the influence of his rejuvenated government on the side of the federal opposition, whose hopes were now running high. With very many, indeed, hope had matured into absolute certainty, and the most confident predictions of the overthrow of the Conservative government were uttered on the platform, in the press and at the

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street corners. The Toronto *Globe* took the most serious view of the situation. "The paramount issue," it said (January 18th, 1887), "is not whether Liberals or Conservatives shall administer Canada's affairs for the next five years, but whether the Dominion shall continue in existence. . . . That the break up of the Confederation would ensue from their [the government's] success is as certain as the break up of the winter." The statement indicates the intensity of party feeling rather than true prophetic vision. Though Macdonald won, the Confederation showed no sign of rift. It is noticeable that, in formulating the policy of the Liberal party a short time after the elections, the Toronto organ did not take by any means the same strong ground against the National Policy as it had done in 1882. On the subject of the tariff it said, "It is clearer than ever that a very high scale of taxation must be retained, and that the manufacturers have nothing to fear."

The elections took place on February 22nd. The result may be inferred from the *Globe's* comment, "God help poor Canada!" This time, however, there was a serious diminution in the government's majority, mainly owing to losses in the province of Quebec consequent on the Riel affair. Members of the House had been more amenable to Sir John's influence than their constituents proved to be, and not a few of them paid the penalty of party allegiance by defeat. The first divi-

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sion list showed that the government could count on a majority of twenty-two. A month or two later the *Globe* so far accepted the accomplished fact as to say, "Of course, as self-governing Canadians, we have a constitutional right to make fools of ourselves if we see fit." Mr. Goldwin Smith was quoted about this time as expressing his belief that annexation to the United States was written in the stars.

An interesting incident of the session of 1887, was the adoption, on June 7th, of a jubilee address to the queen. The sentiments which it breathed were those of the most devoted loyalty to the person of the sovereign, of admiration for her character, and of satisfaction with the status of Canada as a self-governing country in vital connection with the British Empire. It was an occasion for oratory on the part of those who had it to give, and Mr. Laurier, who had just succeeded Mr. Blake in the leadership of the Liberal party, was easily the hero of the occasion. If Lord Durham, in the world of shades, could have caught some words of the eulogy pronounced by a French-Canadian upon British institutions and British liberty as enjoyed in Canada fifty years save one after the apparent failure of his mission, it would have amply compensated him for much that he had suffered. Sir John Macdonald, whom nature never designed for efforts of this kind, spoke briefly and not very happily. He said, however, that the "armed resistance of 1837 was due, not to dis-

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loyalty to the queen, but to grievances of which the people complained," a declaration which was seized upon by the Liberal journal as a kind of belated confession by a Conservative leader that the Reformers of the past had been in the right and those who opposed them in the wrong. Sir John possibly said a little more than he meant; he had never been a "family compact" man; on the other hand he had stoutly denied that there was any justification for rebellion.

In 1888 a sharp conflict arose between the provincial government of Manitoba and the federal government of the Dominion in reference to the monopoly of transportation enjoyed by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. An important part of the original agreement with that company, and one of the principal inducements which it had to undertake the work, was that no other corporation should have the right to build lines southwards so as to connect with the railway systems of the United States. This was considered a necessary protection against the old and powerful lines within the limits of the States. During the years of agricultural depression, when the low price of wheat coupled with a series of bad harvests left the Western farmer in a very impoverished condition, the people of Manitoba became very restless under the Canadian Pacific monopoly, and attributed a part of their difficulties to the lack of railway competition. The feeling grew so strong throughout

MANITOBA DISSATISFIED

the province that the determination was taken to break up this monopoly in defiance of the law. Macdonald's government was placed in an awkward position. On the one side their honour was pledged to the company ; on the other the popular feeling was placing a heavy strain upon federal relations. In conformity with his usual practice, Macdonald found his way out of the difficulty by means of compromise. A considerable loan was made to the Canadian Pacific in return for the abandonment of their legal rights.

We have seen that Macdonald was obliged to face a storm of racial and religious feeling in the province of Quebec when his sense of duty to the Dominion forced upon him the conviction that the law should take its course with regard to Riel. In this case it was Roman Catholic feeling that was aroused and threatened to shatter political alliances and combinations. So, too, it was when the New Brunswick School Bill was believed to take away from Roman Catholics an acquired right in the matter of separate schools, and followers of Macdonald of that faith from all the provinces joined hands in supporting the claims of their New Brunswick co-religionists. But storms as violent he had also to face from a precisely opposite quarter. One of the most noteworthy of these arose in connection with the Jesuits' Estates Act, passed by the provincial legislature of Quebec in 1888, under the inspiration of the

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Hon. Honoré Mercier, then premier of that province.

So far back as 1773 the Jesuit order, which held considerable estates in Canada, had been suppressed by the Pope. The property of the order thereupon fell to the Crown, and was applied to purposes of public education in the province. Under the Act of Confederation special provision was made for vesting this property in the provincial government of Quebec, and it thus became subject to the control of the local legislature.

But the Roman Catholic Church had always claimed that the confiscated possessions rightly belonged to it exclusively, and that they should have reverted to the bishops of the various dioceses. When Mr. Mercier, whose political power in Quebec depended largely upon his relations with the Church, incorporated in 1887 the Society of Jesus, that body naturally laid claim to the estates under dispute. To settle the difficulty to the content of all claimants, Mr. Mercier took a bold step. He introduced into the Quebec legislature and passed an Act authorizing the payment of four hundred thousand dollars as compensation for the lands which the Jesuit body had held before the conquest. The voting of a large sum of public money to a religious organization was a step peculiarly calculated to offend the susceptibilities of large sections of the Canadian electorate. The British and Protestant portion of the population of Quebec regarded it as

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a dangerous encroachment on the resources of the province, evidently designed to strengthen a Church already excessively strong in its great possessions and in the exemption of its property from taxation. The watchful eyes of Protestant Ontario detected in the measure a threat of French and ecclesiastical domination in Canadian politics, while the Orange body was especially indignant at the provision—made an essential part of the Act—that the Pope, as head of the Roman Catholic Church, should determine the method of distributing the money, and that, until His Holiness had done this, the sum granted should be held as a special deposit.

In this remarkable measure there was, manifestly, abundant material for kindling and feeding the fires of religious animosity, and a violent agitation arose, in which press, pulpit and platform each took a vigorous part. The controversy was shifted at once to the political arena by the fact that the only way in which the Act in question could be prevented from becoming law was by its disallowance by the federal government. A small but influential group of Macdonald's followers in parliament, headed by Dalton McCarthy, up to this time one of his most trusted advisers on constitutional measures, combined with a few Ontario Liberals to press on the federal government the policy of disallowance. Great efforts were made to arouse feeling on the question in the provinces outside

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Quebec, and especially in Ontario, where the passions stirred up by the murder of Scott, at Fort Garry, in the first rebellion, and later by the agitation to save Riel after the second rebellion, were not yet entirely laid to rest.

The motion favouring disallowance brought forward in parliament by Colonel W. E. O'Brien, illustrates well the kind of task laid upon Macdonald in mediating between conflicting interests and passions. In that motion disallowance of the Jesuits' Estates Act is urged : " Firstly, because it endows from public funds a religious organization, thereby violating the undoubted constitutional principle of the complete separation of Church and State, and of the absolute equality of all denominations before the law. Secondly, because it recognizes the usurpation of a right by a foreign authority, namely, His Holiness the Pope of Rome, to claim that his consent was necessary to empower the provincial legislature to dispose of a portion of the public domain, and also because the Act is made to depend upon the will, and the appropriation of the grant thereby made, as subject to the control of the same authority. And, thirdly, because the endowment of the Society of Jesus, an alien, secret and politico-religious body, the expulsion of which from every Christian community wherein it has had a footing has been rendered necessary by its intolerant and mischievous intermeddling with the functions of civil government,

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is fraught with danger to the civil and religious liberties of the people of Canada."

Macdonald took his stand upon the strictly constitutional aspect of the question. The control of the Jesuits' Estates, no one could deny, had been handed over to the provincial government ; the province had a right to do what it pleased with its own. However injudicious the method adopted for distributing the public funds of a province ; however irritating to the people of other provinces the conditions attached to such distribution, the exercise of the federal veto would nevertheless be an unwarranted invasion of provincial rights. Even if the people of Quebec should decide to throw any part of the public money into the sea, they had the constitutional right to pursue their course of folly.

These arguments prevailed in parliament, and Colonel O'Brien's motion was defeated by a vote of one hundred and eighty-eight to thirteen. The agitation was continued, however, in the country, and ended, after taking the form of mass meetings at various centres and a convention at Toronto, in the formation of an Equal Rights Association, and later of the Protestant Protective Association, which for some time carried on an anti-Catholic campaign, even more opposed to the growth of a broad Canadian sentiment than was the original action of Mr. Mercier. During all this time Macdonald's influence was steadily employed to

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allay an inflamed condition of feeling which he no doubt regarded as springing chiefly from bigotry and religious animosity, and as operating against that political consolidation of the Dominion which was the constant object of his efforts.

Meanwhile, other difficulties were accumulating and new dangers had to be faced. Only slowly and painfully did Canada feel its way forwards to a clear understanding of its true place in the world. Conditions were becoming more complicated, new combinations were being formed, new ambitions were stirring, all destined to make themselves felt in the political conflict with which the public career of Macdonald closed, and which must be dealt with in a separate chapter.

CHAPTER XIV

THE LAST ELECTION

COMMERCIAL UNION—UNRESTRICTED RECIPROCITY

1891

THE circumstances of the country during the years which preceded the general election of 1891 were in many ways exceedingly favourable to the agitators whose aim was to induce Canadians to adopt the policy of “commercial union” with the United States as a remedy for the business depression under which the country was suffering. The settlement of the North-West had not proceeded with the rapidity that had been anticipated when the transcontinental railway was completed. A succession of bad seasons had had a most discouraging influence on the settlers who had come into the country. The price of agricultural produce was low, and for a long time gave no sign of improvement. The farming population was therefore, for the moment, poor and far from contented. The inflation which had followed on the opening up of the North-West had been succeeded by a period of reaction and extreme depression in Winnipeg and other western centres. The National Policy had, in the east, stimulated production in manufacture before

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a sufficient market had been created in the west for the goods produced, so that the artisan suffered with the farmer. The renewal of the reciprocity secured by the treaty of 1854, so favourable to Canadian trade, had been, over and over again, refused by the United States. In that country a distinct hostility to Canadian interests had been created after the rejection by the senate of the Chamberlain-Bayard treaty, and the consequent assertion and protection of Canadian rights in the fisheries of the coast. The threat of President Cleveland to abrogate the bonding privilege by way of reprisal for the latter proceeding, accentuated the anxiety of those who doubted Canada's ability to stand up against the commercial dominance of her great competitor on the American continent.

These and many other minor circumstances conspired to strengthen the hands of those who in 1887 and the following years advocated a policy which in practice would have involved the surrender of the country's commercial and fiscal independence as the price to be paid for the full enjoyment of the markets of the continent.

Between 1887 and 1891 a vigorous and sustained campaign was carried on in favour of this policy—at first under the name of “commercial union,” and later, as this term became increasingly unpopular, under that of “unrestricted reciprocity.” The movement attracted the support of men actuated by widely different motives. Mr. Goldwin Smith, the

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gloomy prophet of annexation perhaps even more than its advocate, lent the service of his skilful and incisive pen and the prestige of his name to a cause which promised industrial alleviation at the moment, with ultimate realization of his own conception of Canada's inevitable future as a part of the American union. His openly avowed object for the moment was to "bring Canada within the commercial pale of her own continent."

Mr. Erastus Wiman, a Canadian resident in New York, and a man of considerable ability and exceptional energy, brought the resources of wealth, and a business organization which covered the continent, to the promulgation of the ideas of the party which advocated this drastic change in Canadian policy. Many business men, impatient at the prolonged depression of trade, joined the Commercial Union League, which was formed to influence public opinion. Among politicians another factor in the situation should not be left out of the account. It was that of personal discontent, due to the long continuance of Conservative supremacy under the leadership of Macdonald.

While the party system seems, on the whole, to furnish the best machinery yet devised for self-government by free and democratic communities, in operation it is not without serious drawbacks and some dangers. Even in England, the birth-place and home of modern constitutional government, the fierce struggle of parties striving for

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power has not unfrequently obscured men's regard for the real interest of the State. It is hard at times to reconcile party spirit with patriotism in the acts and utterances even of such a man as Charles James Fox, to mention but a single instance.

Conditions of public life in a new country like Canada exaggerate this evil. Politicians have not the wealth common among the ruling classes in older communities, and so it means more to them to lose office, with its influence, its emoluments, and its opportunities for the distribution of patronage. Parties cling to power desperately, and under skilful management an undesirable régime may maintain its ground for a very long period.

This reacts on the spirit of an Opposition. A party long kept from power and the rewards of office grows bitter and discontented. It is scarcely too much to say that a small section, at least, of the Liberal party, towards the end of Macdonald's career, was in this mood and ready for very doubtful adventures. A few certainly laid themselves open, even among men of their own side of politics, to the suspicion of disloyalty, as that term is understood in Canada.

The keenest advocates of fiscal union with the United States were, however, outside the ranks of political party. The Commercial Union League which was formed for the special advocacy of the scheme had Mr. Goldwin Smith as its president. The movement secured support from the president

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of the Toronto Board of Trade, and the president of the Council of Farmers' Institutes—circumstances which indicated the possibility of a strong movement in its favour among the trading and farming classes of Ontario.

Two powerful organs of public opinion—the Toronto *Mail* and the *Globe*—one professedly independent and the other strongly Liberal in its traditions, gave active support to the new policy.

On the other side of the national boundary line the movement was encouraged by the introduction into congress by Mr. Butterworth, a member of the House of Representatives, of a bill which proposed to settle all the existing differences between the United States and Canada by the adoption of a zollverein.

Against these various forces a group of vigorous thinkers, partly also outside of politics and influenced mainly by other than party considerations, set its face resolutely, and fought the Commercial Unionists on every platform. Foremost in this group were Principal George M. Grant, Dalton McCarthy, M.P. and Colonel George T. Denison. Their appeal against the new policy was chiefly based on the spirit of national honour and loyalty to British traditions, which they believed would be violated by any system which discriminated against the motherland and tended to make Canada subject, in the first place commercially, and later politically, to an alien people. An established reputa-

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tion as disinterested men and as sincere and ardent advocates of imperial unity gave the arguments of this group great weight in an electorate long trained in principles of British loyalty, and their speeches went far to bring discredit upon Commercial Union as a popular cry. Meanwhile politicians on both sides watched closely to see whereto the agitation would grow.

In the Liberal party there was divided opinion as to the attitude which should be taken towards the new policy. Subsequent events proved that Mr. Blake, who had lately resigned the Liberal leadership, though publicly silent, was privately suspicious of the whole movement. Mr. Laurier, the newly-elected leader, in one of his earlier speeches in that capacity, while carefully stating the case for Commercial Union with the United States, hesitated about committing himself to it entirely, hinted that it might be "surrounded by insurmountable difficulties," but held that "the time has come to abandon the policy of retaliation followed thus far by the Canadian government, to show the American people that we are brothers, and to hold out our hands to them, with a due regard for the duties we owe to our Mother Country." He, at the same time, expressed his preference for a policy under which "all the nations recognizing the sovereignty of Great Britain would agree to rally together by means of commercial treaties," adding in reference to this, with prophetic vision of his own

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future efforts: "I consider the idea as good and fair, and such being the case I believe that it will eventually triumph." On the other hand Sir Richard Cartwright, whose authority at that time was great in the Liberal party, openly declared in 1887 for Commercial Union. In a speech delivered at Ingersoll on October 12th of that year, he said: "I am averse as any man can be to annexation or to resign our political independence, but I cannot shut my eyes to the facts. We have greatly misused our advantages. We have been most foolish and most wasteful in our expenditures. We have no means of satisfying the just demands of large portions of the Dominion except through such an arrangement as Commercial Union There is a risk, and I cannot overlook it. But it is a choice of risks. I say deliberately that the refusal or failure to secure free trade with the United States is much more likely to bring about just such a political crisis as these parties affect to dread than even the closest commercial connection that can be conceived."

An utterance such as this, coming from a man of position in the party, gave colour to the opinion that Commercial Union would be adopted as the Liberal trade policy. The provincial governments of the time were mostly Liberal, and at an inter-provincial conference of their representatives held in the autumn of 1887, a resolution in favour of "unrestricted reciprocity" was passed, but coupled

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significantly with the declaration of "fervent loyalty to Her Majesty the Queen, and warm attachment to British connection," indicating clearly the danger which was anticipated from pressing the question of Commercial Union pure and simple. It is to be noted that a small Conservative minority at this conference, representing Manitoba and New Brunswick, which both suffered severely from restriction of trade with the United States, assented to this resolution.

When parliament met in 1888 it became necessary for the Liberal party to definitely state its policy. At the caucus held for that purpose a large majority was found to be opposed to any scheme which would make the fiscal system of Canada so dependent on that of the United States as it would be under complete Commercial Union, although some members were ready to make even this sacrifice for the sake of the advantages expected to flow from untrammelled trade relations.

The declaration of policy ultimately fixed upon was introduced into parliament as a resolution on March 14th, 1888, by Sir Richard Cartwright. It read as follows : " That it is highly desirable that the largest possible freedom of commercial intercourse should obtain between the Dominion of Canada and the United States, and that it is expedient that all articles manufactured in, or the natural products of either of the said countries, should be admitted free of duty into the ports of

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the other, articles subject to duties of excise or of internal revenue alone excepted ; and that it is further expedient that the government of the Dominion should take steps at an early date to ascertain on what terms and conditions arrangements can be effected with the United States for the purpose of securing full and unrestricted reciprocity of trade therewith." While the unpopular term "Commercial Union" was rejected in this resolution the substance of the idea was manifestly retained, since it is impossible to conceive a common tariff the terms of which would not be fixed by the predominant partner to the arrangement.

In parliament Macdonald met the issue thus raised by a direct negative. An amendment, approving of the protective policy of the government, was moved to the resolution of Sir Richard Cartwright by the finance minister of the cabinet, the Hon. G. E. Foster, and was carried by a vote of one hundred and twenty-four to sixty-seven. Again in 1889 Sir Richard Cartwright brought forward a modified resolution demanding a reduction of tariffs, and proposing that negotiations with the United States should be "conducted upon the basis of the most extended reciprocal freedom of trade between Canada and the United States in manufactured as well as natural products." This resolution also was voted down in parliament by a large majority.

But the Liberal party was now thoroughly com-

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mitted to the general policy of unrestricted reciprocity outlined in these resolutions, and its leading speakers and writers devoted their energies during the next two years to the education of the public mind in this direction. They had perhaps been carried further than they intended by the apparent necessity for having some strong and individual line of policy to put before the country.

No reasonable person doubts that the majority of those who argued for closer trade relations with the United States did so with a view to the best interests of Canada and in perfect good faith. But it was unfortunate for the party that, while the policy thus adopted had in it much specious promise of material benefit, it was, as now put forward, opposed to sentiments and prejudices deeply rooted in the Canadian mind, and enlisted support of an exceedingly questionable character.

The extreme advocates of unrestricted reciprocity brought forward arguments and used expressions which offended the powerful sentiment of British nationality, and aroused suspicion of the objects they had in view. So true was this that a genuine belief was created in many minds that there was an organized conspiracy to hand over the country to the United States, and facts were to come to light which strengthened this suspicion.

The parliament of 1887 had yet a year to run when Macdonald, early in 1891, made up his mind that the time had come for an appeal to the electors

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on the momentous issue which had thus been raised. In many ways the chances of an election would at this time, under ordinary circumstances, have been strongly against him. Even his wonderful political adroitness could not altogether resist the swing of the pendulum, that tendency in free governments to lose strength during any long continuance of power, either by the defection of friends or the multiplication of opponents. Ontario was sore over the government's attitude towards the Jesuits' Estates Bill. Suspicion of corruption was hanging over one at least of his principal colleagues. A struggle going on in the West against the monopoly of transportation enjoyed by the Canadian Pacific Railway reacted unfavourably on the government which had granted the monopoly. The mere desire for change, after so many years of Conservative supremacy, was a force in the constituencies not to be ignored.

But he felt that it would be useless for parliament to meet again until the political atmosphere had been cleared by some definite expression from the constituencies. He perhaps recognized also the desirability of having a question of such far-reaching consequence to the Dominion settled once for all, while his own personal influence and prestige would count in the struggle. His political instincts, long trained to nice perception of the state of public feeling, told him that the time was opportune. He saw that the policy put forward by the Opposi-

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tion, while it received support from a certain class of thinkers and business men, and for the moment seemed to serve the party purposes of his opponents, was fundamentally opposed to the main drift of Canadian history and Canadian purpose. He was convinced that the Canadian people shared his own fixed belief that greater things were in store for the Dominion than Commercial Union, or union of any other kind with the United States, could give.

The new policy, it was clear, drew support from some who had no sympathy with that devotion to British connection, and that passionate loyalty to the idea of a United Empire, which had played so large a part in Canadian history, and had more than once exercised a decisive influence on the course of events. The cold philosophy of Goldwin Smith, which placed the theory of free trade before national sentiment, was, to say the least, opposed to Canadian traditions. Macdonald on the other hand trusted to the strength of that sentiment to overcome every obstacle that confronted him in the coming contest.

He would not have been true, however, to his own record as a strategist in politics had he not tried to turn his opponents' flank. He had steadily opposed the plan of complete surrender to the American system. But he knew that the demand for improved trade relations with the United States was widespread and in a measure justified. In past times he had himself made every honourable effort

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to renew the reciprocal arrangement, which, between 1854 and 1866 had proved of so much advantage to both countries. Indeed, he claimed with apparent truth that every improvement in reciprocal trade hitherto made with the neighbouring republic had been obtained by Conservative governments of which he was a member. He now took steps through the medium of the home government, in connection with certain discussions concerning Newfoundland and Canadian fisheries, to approach the government of the United States once more with proposals for considering the various questions in dispute between that country and Canada with a view to an amicable settlement, and especially with the object of extending commercial intercourse between the two countries. How far he entertained hopes of success we have no means of knowing. But he well knew that a government in power striving to get the best terms possible from a commercial rival was more likely to be approved by the electors than an Opposition ready to make wholesale concessions and even risk political integrity.

The Conservative press made the most of this attempt to renew negotiations, and perhaps gave an exaggerated significance to the fact that the question had been re-opened partly at the suggestion of the American secretary of state, in connection with the discussion of fishery questions which concerned both Canada and Newfoundland. The Liberal

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party, recognizing that active exertion on the part of the government for better trade relations greatly weakened their own exclusive claim to this policy, denounced the new move as a mere electoral stratagem, and the circumstances introduced a new element of bitterness into the struggle.

Parliament was dissolved on February 3rd, and the election was fixed for March 5th. On February 7th, Macdonald issued his last formal appeal to the electors of the Dominion. This address, in which he reviews the work of his party in the development of Canada, criticizes the obstructive policy of his opponents, and finally concentrates attention upon the great issue immediately before the country, furnishes so good an illustration of his twofold character as party leader and national statesman, that even to-day, when the questions which he discusses are dead and buried, much of it may be read with interest. He says to the electors:—

“The momentous questions now engaging public attention having, in the opinion of the ministry, reached that stage when it is desirable that an opportunity should be given to the people of expressing, at the polls, their views thereon, the governor-general has been advised to terminate the existence of the present House of Commons, and to issue writs summoning a new parliament. This advice His Excellency has seen fit to approve, and you, therefore, will be called upon within a short time to elect members to represent you in the

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great council of the nation. I shall be a candidate for the representation of my old constituency, the city of Kingston.

“In soliciting at your hands a renewal of the confidence which I have enjoyed as a minister of the Crown for thirty years, it is, I think, convenient that I should take advantage of the occasion to define the attitude of the government, in which I am First Minister, towards the leading political issues of the day.

“As in 1878, in 1882, and again in 1887, so in 1891, do questions relating to the trade and commerce of the country occupy a foremost place in the public mind. Our policy in respect thereto is to-day what it has been for the past thirteen years, and is directed by a firm determination to foster and develop the varied resources of the Dominion, by every means in our power consistent with Canada's position as an integral portion of the British Empire. To that end we have laboured in the past, and we propose to continue in the work to which we have applied ourselves, of building up on this continent, under the flag of England, a great and powerful nation.

“When, in 1878, we were called upon to administer the affairs of the Dominion, Canada occupied a position in the eyes of the world very different from that which she enjoys to-day. At that time a profound depression hung like a pall over the whole country, from the Atlantic Ocean to the

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western limits of the province of Ontario, beyond which to the Rocky Mountains stretched a vast and almost unknown wilderness. Trade was depressed, manufactures languished, and, exposed to ruinous competition, Canadians were fast sinking into the position of being mere 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' for the great nation dwelling to the south of us. We determined to change this unhappy state of things. We felt that Canada, with its agricultural resources, rich in its fisheries, timber, and mineral wealth, was worthy of a nobler position than that of being a slaughter market of the United States. We said to the Americans : 'We are perfectly willing to trade with you on equal terms. We are desirous of having a fair reciprocity treaty, but we will not consent to open our markets to you while yours remain closed to us.' So we inaugurated the National Policy. You all know what followed. Almost as if by magic, the whole face of the country underwent a change. Stagnation and apathy and gloom—ay, and want and misery too—gave place to activity and enterprise and prosperity. The miners of Nova Scotia took courage ; the manufacturing industries in our great centres revived and multiplied ; the farmer found the market for his produce, the artisan and labourer employment at good wages, and all Canada rejoiced under the quickening impulse of a new-found life. The age of deficits was past, and an overflowing treasury gave to the government the means of carrying for-

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ward those great works necessary to the realization of our purpose to make this country a homogeneous whole.

“To that end we undertook that stupendous work, the Canadian Pacific Railway. Undeterred by the pessimistic views of our opponents—nay, in spite of their strenuous, and even malignant, opposition—we pushed forward that great enterprise through the wilds north of Lake Superior, across the western prairies, over the Rocky Mountains to the shores of the Pacific, with such inflexible resolution that, in seven years after the assumption of office by the present administration, the dream of our public men was an accomplished fact, and I myself experienced the proud satisfaction of looking back from the steps of my car upon the Rocky Mountains fringing the eastern sky. The Canadian Pacific Railway now extends from ocean to ocean, opening up and developing the country at a marvellous rate, and forming an imperial highway to the East over which the trade of the Indies is destined to reach the markets of Europe. We have subsidized steamship lines on both oceans—to Europe, China, Japan, Australia, and the West Indies. We have spent millions on the extension and improvement of our canal system. We have, by liberal grants of subsidies, promoted the building of railways, now become an absolute necessity, until the whole country is covered as with a network ; and we have done all this with such pru-

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dence and caution, that our credit in the money market of the world is higher to-day than it has ever been, and the rate of interest on our debt, which is a true measure of the public burdens, is less then it was when we took office in 1878.

“During all this time what has been the attitude of the Reform party? Vacillating in their policy and inconstancy itself as regards their leaders, they have at least been consistent in this particular, that they have uniformly opposed every measure which had for its object the development of our common country. The National Policy was a failure before it had been tried. Under it we could not possibly raise a revenue sufficient for the public requirements. Time exposed that fallacy. Then we were to pay more for the home-manufactured article than we used to when we bought everything abroad. We were to be the prey of rings and monopolies, and the manufacturers were to extort their own prices. When these fears had been proved unfounded, we were assured that over-competition would inevitably prove the ruin of the manufacturing industries, and thus bring about a state of affairs worse than that which the National Policy had been designed to meet. It was the same with the Canadian Pacific Railway. The whole project, according to our opponents, was a chimera. The engineering difficulties were insuperable, the road, even if constructed, would never pay. Well, gentlemen, the project was feasible, the engineering diffi-

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culties were overcome, and the road does pay. Disappointed by the failure of all their predictions, and convinced that nothing is to be gained by further opposition on the old lines, the Reform party has taken a new departure, and has announced its policy to be Unrestricted Reciprocity—that is (as defined by its author, Mr. Wiman, in the *North American Review* a few days ago) free-trade with the United States, and a common tariff with the United States against the rest of the world. The adoption of this policy would involve, among other grave evils, discrimination against the mother country. It would, in my opinion, inevitably result in the annexation of this Dominion to the United States.”

After discussing the necessity that such a system would create for direct taxation to replace the ordinary revenue derived from import duties, which would be done away with by a system of commercial union, he returns to the vital issue of the election.

“For a century and a half this country has grown and flourished under the protecting ægis of the British Crown. The gallant race who first bore to our shores the blessings of civilization, passed, by an easy transition, from French to English rule, and now form one of the most law-abiding portions of the community. These pioneers were speedily recruited by the advent of a loyal band of British subjects, who gave up everything that men most prize, and

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were content to begin life anew in the wilderness rather than forego allegiance to their sovereign. To the descendants of these men, and of the multitude of Englishmen, Irishmen and Scotchmen who emigrated to Canada that they might build up new homes without ceasing to be British subjects—to you Canadians I appeal, and I ask you what have you to gain by surrendering that which your fathers held most dear? Under the broad folds of the Union Jack, we enjoy the most ample liberty to govern ourselves as we please, and at the same time we participate in the advantages which flow from association with the mightiest empire the world has ever seen. Not only are we free to manage our domestic concerns, but, practically, we possess the privilege of making our own treaties with foreign countries, and, in our relations with the outside world, we enjoy the prestige inspired by a consciousness of the fact that behind us towers the majesty of England. The question which you will shortly be called upon to determine resolves itself into this: Shall we endanger our possession of the great heritage bequeathed to us by our fathers, and submit ourselves to direct taxation for the privilege of having our tariff fixed at Washington, with a prospect of ultimately becoming a portion of the American union? I commend these issues to your determination, and to the judgment of the whole people of Canada, with an unclouded confidence that you will proclaim to the world your

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resolve to show yourselves not unworthy of the proud distinction that you enjoy, of being numbered among the most dutiful and loyal subjects of our beloved queen.

“As for myself, my course is clear. A British subject I was born—a British subject I will die. With my utmost effort, with my latest breath, will I oppose the ‘veiled treason’ which attempts by sordid means and mercenary proffers to lure our people from their allegiance. During my long public service of nearly half a century, I have been true to my country and its best interests, and I appeal with equal confidence to the men who have trusted me in the past, and to the young hope of the country with whom rest its destinies for the future, to give me their united and strenuous aid in this, my last effort, for the unity of the empire and the preservation of our commercial and political freedom.”

Over-strained on some points as this address may seem to-day, it yet has in it the ring of reality and sincerity, and it reflects with reasonable accuracy the tension of public feeling at the time. The leader of the Opposition, Mr. Laurier, who must have found himself seriously embarrassed by one wing of his allies, replied with moderation, repudiating as an “unworthy appeal to passion and prejudice” the charge that unrestricted reciprocity was “veiled treason” “even when it was presented with the great authority of Sir John

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Macdonald's name." Sir Oliver Mowat and other prominent Liberals did their best to strengthen their leader's hands by re-affirming, as they had the strongest traditional right to do, their unqualified loyalty to British connection. It was while the judgment of that wavering body of electors which holds the balance between parties was yet in suspense that a new factor was introduced into the discussion.

An extremely able political journalist of the time, Mr. Edward Farrer, who had won distinction by his contributions, especially on economic questions, to other Canadian journals, had lately been transferred to the staff of the leading Liberal organ—the *Toronto Globe*—as its chief editorial writer, and as such was naturally supposed to have intimate relations with the prominent men of the party. Mr. Farrer had convinced himself that annexation to the United States was the inevitable destiny of Canada ; he was in communication, as afterwards appeared, with public men in the neighbouring states on the question, and he had prepared a pamphlet in which he discussed methods by which pressure could be exercised at Washington to force Canadians into political union. Among these methods were an increase of taxation on the products of Canada ; the abolition of the bonding system by which British or foreign goods were imported into the Dominion through American ports ; the imposition of a tonnage tax on Canadian fish-

THE FARRER PAMPHLET

ing vessels ; the cutting of connection between Canadian and American railways at essential points—everything, indeed, which would impress upon Canadians the disadvantage of not being a part of the American system. He claimed that steps such as these, by paralysing the commerce and industry of the Dominion, would compel the electorate to look to political union as the only way of escape from financial ruin. He paid Macdonald the compliment of saying that a time when he was about to leave the stage of public affairs would be a favourable moment for carrying out this coercive policy. “Whatever course,” this writer said, “the United States may see fit to adopt, it is plain that Sir John’s disappearance from the stage is to be the signal for a movement towards annexation. The enormous debt of the Dominion (fifty dollars per head), the virtual bankruptcy of all the provinces except Ontario, the pressure of the American tariff upon trade and industry, the incurable issue of race, and the action of natural forces making for the consolidation of the lesser country with the greater, have already prepared the minds of most intelligent Canadians for the destiny that awaits them ; and a leader will be forthcoming when the hour arrives.”

The proof sheets of this pamphlet were, it is said, stolen from the office of the printer, and they found their way into Macdonald’s hands. They doubtless furnished the grounds of the reference in his ad-

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dress to "veiled treason." At a great party gathering in Toronto he disclosed, amid much excitement, what he pronounced to be a conspiracy to hand over Canada to the United States. The leaders of the Liberal party vehemently protested against having themselves associated with the opinions expressed in the pamphlet, and the writer himself promptly asserted his sole responsibility for everything that he had written, which was, he declared, merely an expression of his own private views. Nevertheless, the Farrer pamphlet strongly influenced public opinion, and was taken as an indication that the policy of unrestricted reciprocity furnished shelter to elements of disloyalty.

"The old flag, the old man, and the old policy," was the epigrammatic phrase, coined by a journalist of the time, into which the issues of the campaign were concentrated, and this became the Conservative rallying cry. The season at which the election came on was the depth of the Canadian winter. Macdonald was now seventy-five years old, and his friends looked forward with natural anxiety to the strain that the contest would put upon him. He threw himself into the campaign with all the energy of youth, travelling from point to point throughout Ontario, and speaking at times twice or thrice a day to huge audiences at places widely apart. The enthusiasm of his supporters knew no bounds, and far too great demands were made on his powers of endurance. The excitement of the contest was greatly

EDWARD BLAKE ON THE ELECTION

augmented by the disclosures to which reference has been made. Sir Charles Tupper, summoned from his post as high commissioner in England, seconded the efforts of his old chief with great vigour.

The election took place on March 5th and at its close, for the fourth time in succession, Macdonald found himself confirmed in power, with a majority of rather more than thirty. It was not an overwhelming victory—a fact sufficient in itself to show that a large proportion of the electors did not take seriously the charge of treasonable conspiracy made against the Opposition. But that Macdonald's attitude on the question was not simply a party trick, nor yet a mere figment of his imagination, was soon shown in the most unexpected way. Edward Blake, long a member of the Liberal party and for some time its leader, had refused to stand at the election, and rumours had circulated which pointed to profound objection on his part to the policy of his friends. Throughout the campaign he maintained complete silence, but as soon as the election was over he addressed a letter to his old constituents of West Durham, in which he reviewed the situation and explained his own position. While strongly denouncing the protective policy of the government as well as its administration of public affairs, he went on to show that unrestricted reciprocity was practically indistinguishable from commercial union. But he had no illusions as to the result of

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adopting such a policy. The tendency would be towards political union. Hence his refusal to co-operate with his party. "Whatever you or I may think on that head, whether we like or dislike, believe or disbelieve in political union, must we not agree that the object is one of great moment, towards the practical settlement of which we should take no serious step without reflection, or in ignorance of what we are doing? Assuming that absolute free trade with the States, best described as commercial union, may and ought to come, I believe that it can and should come only as an incident, or at any rate as a well understood precursor of political union, for which indeed we should be able to make better terms before than after the surrender of our commercial independence. Then, so believing—believing that the decision of the trade question involves that of the constitutional issue—for which you are unprepared and with which you do not even conceive yourselves to be dealing—how can I properly recommend you now to decide on commercial union?"

How far the pamphlet of Mr. Farrer and the explanation of Mr. Blake to his constituents, to say nothing of the other speeches and journalistic utterances of the time, justify the attitude of Macdonald during the campaign of 1891, the impartial student of the period may perhaps best be left to decide for himself. Certain it is that in the bye-elections which occurred during the ensuing year,

VINDICATION OF POLICY

when people had been given time to coolly review all the circumstances, the Conservative majority steadily increased. Macdonald's still more triumphant vindication rests in the fact that, throughout the many years of Liberal sway which have since elapsed, his policy has been perpetuated, and it is Sir Wilfrid Laurier himself who has finally disposed of unrestricted reciprocity by declaring that Canadians will make no more "pilgrimages to Washington" in search of commercial advantages. Political strategist Macdonald may have been, but the searching test of time has proved conclusively that the consummate strategist was also the wise and prescient statesman.

CHAPTER XV

CLOSING DAYS—CONTEMPORARY ESTIMATES —CHARACTERISTICS

THE election of 1891 was the last great effort of a long political career, and the short remainder of Macdonald's life story may be briefly told. The strain of the winter campaign, with all its excitements, was too much for the strength of a man who was now more than seventy-five years old, and who had never known what it was to spare himself when an emergency demanded an extraordinary effort. He had returned to his own constituency of Kingston exhausted by continuous travel and much speaking in Western Ontario. Carried away by the eagerness of his supporters to see and hear him, he consented to attend a final demonstration at Napanee, and there, driving from one heated hall and crowded audience to another, to address an overflow meeting, he received a chill from which he never thoroughly recovered. For a time his strong will and wonderful vitality held him up, and after a few days of complete rest, insisted upon by his physicians at Kingston, he returned to Ottawa in time to record his own vote, and to receive the reports of the election itself.

Most of the time from the day of the election, March 5th, till the day when parliament opened

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on April 29th, was spent under medical care. The opening of the session, however, found him in his place in the House. He was cheered by the presence of his son, who had just been elected in Manitoba, and now entered the Dominion parliament for the first time. But the characteristic alertness of his step—the brightness of his humour—the cheeriness with which he greeted the devoted followers who had fought under his banner and shared his victory—the energy he showed in trying to fulfil his accustomed social and official duties, were but the last flicker of fires about to go out. Early in May a slight stroke of paralysis, which affected his speech, warned himself and his friends that his physical powers were failing. He recovered sufficiently, however, from his first attack to resume his social duties and return to parliament.

His last appearance in the House of Commons, which he had ruled so long, was on May 22nd, when, in answer to criticism by a member of the Opposition, he took upon himself the full responsibility for having brought Sir Charles Tupper over from London, where he was at the time filling the office of high commissioner, to take part in the electoral struggle. On the following day he gave the last of his many sessional dinners, and seemed in excellent spirits. But increasing weakness and a return of partial paralysis within the next two or three days made him conscious that his time was short.

ILLNESS AND DEATH

His secretary and biographer has told in detail of the calm demeanour and quiet dignity which he showed when he realized the gravity of his condition. He insisted on signing at once a document in regard to the disposition of his property, "while" as he said, "there is time." Then he turned to his correspondence and to parliamentary matters, while "neither by voice, look, nor manner did he manifest the slightest disquietude." He continued to interest himself in public business up to May 29th, when a further stroke of paralysis rendered him unconscious. In this condition he lingered for eight days, and on June 6th, 1891, his strenuous life came to a quiet end.

From the moment that the fatal character of his illness was understood, messages of enquiry and sympathy came in on every side—from the queen—from viceroys under whom he had served—from colleagues and friends at a distance with whom he had worked; while, wherever men met together throughout Canada, the impending loss of the country was the absorbing subject of thought and discussion. Parliament was in session when he died; a State funeral was at once ordered, and the Houses adjourned for eight days as a formal expression of the national sorrow. After lying in state in the senate chamber, his body was conveyed with imposing ceremony and with demonstrations of popular respect and affection without previous parallel in Canada, to Kingston, the town

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where his childhood had been spent, and the constituency which he had represented throughout nearly the whole of his long political career. There, in accordance with his own desire, he was buried beside the grave of his mother, in the Cataragui cemetery. The emigrant boy of 1820, grown to be a leader of men and the master-builder of a great Dominion, who as a statesman had planned the future of the nation, and as prime minister had often been called "to shape the whispers of a throne," was laid to rest amid the universal sorrow of a people who had come to look upon him as the chief pillar of the State.

A wreath of white roses on his breast as he lay in his coffin, "From Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, in memory of her faithful and devoted servant;" a patent of nobility conferred upon his widow as the Baroness Macdonald of Earnscliffe, were marks bestowed by his sovereign—the one of private regard, the other of official recognition of the unique work which he had accomplished for the good of the empire. A memorial service in Westminster Abbey, the first of its kind held in honour of a colonist; a tablet erected soon after his death in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral, were more public and equally fitting indications of the sense of national loss felt in the motherland.

In its mention of the memorial service held at the greatest of all centres of English history, the London *Times* accurately interpreted the signifi-

WESTMINSTER ABBEY

cance of the ceremony. “ Westminster Abbey yesterday offered a spectacle which is without precedent in the long and varied annals of that venerable building. A congregation, eminently representative of all ranks and classes of Englishmen, from the sovereign downwards, assembled to take part in a solemn service held in memory of Sir John Macdonald, and to testify to the strength and sincerity of the sympathy felt in this country with our fellow-subjects in Canada. Many a great Englishman sleeps within the Abbey, and many a requiem sung within its walls has awakened mournful echoes in the hearts of English-speaking peoples beyond the seas. But this is the first time that a great sorrow, primarily falling upon our fellow-subjects abroad, has awakened in the mother country a sentiment so strong as to demand and receive expression in the ancient church that is consecrated by so many of our proudest associations. Our roll of heroes would be sadly curtailed were we to remove from it the names of those who did their work in foreign lands and laid broad and deep foundations of empire on which self-governing communities have since based the fabric of their liberties. But the great soldiers and administrators, whose reward was sealed and perfected by their final entry into the national Pantheon, have always hitherto been the servants of England, directly responsible to the English people ; and the conscious aim of their work, whatever might be its indirect issues, has

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been to extend the power and add to the greatness of their fatherland. Sir John Macdonald has primarily laboured for the greatness of Canada, has been the devoted servant of the Canadian people, and has sought at their hands the guerdon of faithful service. It is in the character of a Canadian statesman that he is now honoured and mourned by the people of this country, as they have been wont to honour and mourn men whose lives were given to their own service. Because he was a Canadian statesman, his bones may not mingle with those of our illustrious dead, but the service at the Abbey is the outward sign of a profound conviction that the great Canadian is also a great Englishman, and that his service to the Dominion ranks him with the most distinguished of those who have served the mother country."

Throughout Canada the intense popular feeling found general and spontaneous expression in many forms ; in elaborate tributes from the press of all political shades of thought ; in addresses of condolence to Lady Macdonald from almost every corporation of importance in the country ; in sermons and speeches dealing with the great leader's work ; in movements to perpetuate his memory by statues or portraits in the principal cities of the Dominion. Though the echoes of a fiercely contested election were still in men's ears when he died, criticism seemed hushed and faults forgotten in the prevailing sense of public loss. He had applied to himself

CONTEMPORARY JUDGMENTS

the thought that to him "much had been forgiven, because he loved much." It was now made clear that he had in this rightly interpreted the final judgment of his countrymen on his public career. They had not merely forgiven; they returned him love for love.

Macdonald was not a man who had many confidants, or who was effusive in his friendships, yet there were thousands to whom his death brought a sense of keen personal loss. Devotion to the service of his country and innate human sympathy were repaid by the devotion of others to himself. To one who reads the records of the time, nothing seems more striking than the strong note of personal affection which runs through much that was said of him.

The things that are said of a man soon after his death are not always the best helps for forming an accurate judgment of his real worth. But there is reason to think that Macdonald's case furnishes an exception to the rule. The conflict from which he had just emerged—the heat of party passion which had been evoked—the hard blows given and received—the consciousness that every expression would be closely scrutinized by an interested public—created a situation in which men felt bound to measure their words and judgments with peculiar care.

Sir Hector Langevin, to whose lot as senior member of the government it fell to announce to

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parliament the death of his leader, broke down entirely under his strong emotion, and was unable to proceed. Sir Wilfrid Laurier's speech on the occasion was a generous appreciation of his great opponent, while its phrases, though carefully weighed, bore none the less the stamp of a deep sincerity. Addressing the House after Sir Hector Langevin he said among other things : " I fully realize the emotion which chokes the honourable gentleman. His silence, under the circumstances, is far more eloquent than any human language can be. I fully appreciate the intensity of the grief which fills the souls of all those who were the friends and followers of Sir John Macdonald, at the loss of the great leader whose whole life has been so closely identified with their party, a party upon which he has thrown such brilliancy and lustre. We on this side of the House, who were his opponents, who did not believe in his policy, nor in his methods of government—we take our full share of their grief—for the loss which they deplore to-day is far and away beyond and above the ordinary compass of party range. It is in every respect a great national loss, for he is no more who was, in many respects, Canada's most illustrious son, and in every sense Canada's foremost citizen and statesman.

" The place of Sir John Macdonald in this country was so large and so absorbing that it is almost impossible to conceive that the political

SIR WILFRID LAURIER'S TRIBUTE

life of this country, the fate of this country, can continue without him. His loss overwhelms us. For my part, I say with all truth his loss overwhelms me, and it also overwhelms this parliament, as if indeed one of the institutions of the land had given way. Sir John Macdonald now belongs to the ages, and it can be said with certainty that the career which has just been closed is one of the most remarkable careers of this century. It would be premature at this time to attempt to fix or anticipate what will be the final judgment of history upon him ; but there were in his career and in his life features so prominent and so conspicuous, that already they shine with a glow which time cannot alter, which even now appear before the eye, such as they will appear to the end in history. I think it can be asserted that, for the supreme art of governing men, Sir John Macdonald was gifted as few men in any land or in any age were gifted—gifted with the highest of all qualities, qualities which would have made him famous wherever exercised, and which would have shone all the more conspicuously the larger the theatre. The fact that he could congregate together elements the most heterogeneous and blend them into one compact party, and to the end of his life keep them steadily under his hand, is perhaps altogether unprecedented. The fact that during all those years he retained unimpaired not only the confidence, but the devotion—the ardent devotion—and affection of his

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party, is evidence that, besides those higher qualities of statesmanship to which we were daily witnesses, he was also endowed with those inner, subtle, undefinable graces of soul which win and keep the hearts of men.

“As to his statesmanship, it is written in the history of Canada. It may be said without any exaggeration whatever, that the life of Sir John Macdonald, from the date he entered parliament, is the history of Canada, for he was connected and associated with all the events, all the facts which brought Canada from the position it then occupied—the position of two small provinces, having nothing in common but their common allegiance, united by a bond of paper, and united by nothing else—to the present state of development which Canada has reached. Although my political views compel me to say that, in my judgment, his actions were not always the best that could have been taken in the interest of Canada, although my conscience compels me to say that of late he has imputed to his opponents motives which I must say in my heart he has misconceived, yet I am only too glad here to sink these differences, and to remember only the great services he has performed for our country—to remember that his actions always displayed great originality of view, unbounded fertility of resource, a high level of intellectual conception, and, above all, a far-reaching vision beyond the event of the day, and still higher,

PRINCIPAL GEORGE M. GRANT

permeating the whole, a broad patriotism—a devotion to Canada's welfare, Canada's advancement, and Canada's glory."

The late Principal Grant, his ardent supporter in the great lines of policy by which Canada was consolidated, his unflinching opponent in lesser matters where the upholder of the moral law and the political leader could not see eye to eye, summed up his final view of Macdonald's character and career in a few weighty words: "Though dead, the ideas that inspired him live. He believed that there was room on the continent of America for at least two nations, and he was determined that Canada should be a nation. He believed in the superiority of the British constitution to any other for free men, and that the preservation of the union with the mother country was necessary to the making of Canada. He had faith in the French race, and believed that a good understanding between French and English people was essential to the national welfare. The people followed him, not only as a leader but as an actual embodiment of those fundamental ideas. . . . To the doing of his work he brought great qualities, and all were laid unreservedly on the altar of his country. The combination of imaginative power and insight, with a just appreciation of the necessities of the present, made him a statesman. In virtue of a quick judgment and extraordinary grasp of detail, he was a supreme man of affairs. Those

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who knew him best, knew him also to be essentially just, humane and God-fearing. He loved power, but the people believed that he sought it that he might minister to the country and not to himself. Canadians will not let the memory of this great man die."

There was truth in the description of him given in *Blackwood* at the time of his death as "one of the greatest of the Conservative forces in the colonial empire."

It was as impossible to question his loyalty to Canada as it was to question his loyalty to the empire. The unique lesson of his life rests in the proof which it furnishes that these two loyalties are not incompatible. To those who watch closely the processes of national development, it seems as if two special dangers threaten the British Empire. One arises from the limited view of a considerable class of public men in Britain, at the centre of imperial influence, it is true, and yet essentially provincial in thought and experience, who fail to grasp what the expansion of the empire means, and find it difficult to look beyond the borders of the United Kingdom in their consideration of national questions. To such men the prospect of national disintegration presents no anxieties, and seems a thing rather to be welcomed than otherwise. The other danger comes from the equally limited vision of many in the colonies who, in questions of difficulty, unduly press the local point of view without

AN IMPERIAL STATESMAN

considering the necessities of the empire as a whole. Both groups of thinkers fail to see that unity of national purpose and action is for British people the essential condition of national greatness and national safety. Between these two types of men Macdonald stands as an example of the statesmanship to which the nation must look in the future. Even his opponents admitted the truth of his boast, modestly but emphatically made at the gloomiest crisis of his public life, that "there does not exist in Canada a man who has given more of his time—more of his heart—more of his wealth—or more of his intellect and power, such as they may be, for the good of the Dominion of Canada."

Yet it was the same man who had thus devoted his life and powers to the service of Canada who could say to his fellow-Canadians in his last appeal for their political support : "A British subject I was born—a British subject I will die. With my utmost effort, with my latest breath, will I oppose the 'veiled treason' which attempts by sordid means and mercenary proffers to lure our people from their allegiance."

A successor in the premiership of the Dominion, Sir John Thompson, when unveiling Macdonald's statue at Hamilton said : "Addressing the vast assemblage which is here to see that statue unveiled, I beseech that you will learn by looking upon that figure the lessons which he whom it represents desired that his countrymen should learn

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and practise ; devotion to the interest of Canada, our country, and the determination that the banner of England shall continue to wave over this country as long as time shall last.”

In like manner it was as a Conservative force in the empire that he chiefly appealed to the statesmen of England. This was the dominant note in the noble tribute paid to him by Lord Rosebery, then secretary of state for foreign affairs, when unveiling the bust erected to his memory in the crypt of St. Paul's Cathedral the year after his death.

“ We are gradually collecting,” he said, “ within this cathedral the *Lares* and the *Penates*—the household gods—of our commonwealth. Up above there sleep Wellington and Nelson, those lords of war who preserved the empire ; below here we have effigies of Dalley and Macdonald, who did so much to preserve it. We have not, indeed, their bodies. They rest more fitly in the regions where they lived and laboured ; but here to-day we consecrate their memory and their example. We know nothing of party politics in Canada on this occasion. We recognize only this, that Sir John Macdonald had grasped the central idea, that the British Empire is the greatest secular agency for good now known to mankind ; that that was the secret of his success, and that he determined to die under it, and strove that Canada should live under it. It is a custom, I have heard, in the German army that, when new colours are presented to a regiment, the German

LORD ROSEBERY'S TRIBUTE

Emperor first, and then his princes and chiefs in their order, each drive a nail into the staff. I have sometimes been reminded of this practice in connection with the banner of our empire. Elizabeth and her heroes first drove their nails in, and so onward through the expansive eighteenth century, when our flag flashed everywhere, down to our own times, when we have not quailed nor shrunk. Yesterday it wrapped the corpse of Tennyson ; to-day we drive one more nail in on behalf of Sir John Macdonald. This standard, so richly studded, imposes on us, the survivors, a solemn obligation. It would be nothing were it the mere symbol of violence and rapine, or even of conquest. It is what it is because it represents everywhere peace and civilization and commerce, the negation of narrowness, and the gospel of humanity. Let us then, to-day, by the shrine of this signal statesman, once more remember our responsibility, and renew the resolution that, come what may, we will not flinch or fail under it."

To form a complete estimate, at once just and impartial, of a career so varied, a character so many-sided, and a mind so versatile, as those of Sir John Macdonald is no easy task, and a biographer is therefore glad to call in the aid of such deliberately expressed opinions of contemporary men of weight as those which have been given. For the rest, one would willingly and perhaps with advantage leave the individual reader to judge for himself

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from a study of the facts. But, as we survey this long and chequered career, a few salient features of character or conduct unfold themselves so clearly that they may be spoken of with some degree of confidence.

Whatever other faults Macdonald may have had, he was no hypocrite. He made no pretence of a superhuman virtue in carrying on his work of governing Canada. He always said that it was an exceedingly difficult task, and he freely acknowledged the fact that he was sometimes reduced to great straits, and was compelled to do things that he would rather have left undone, while feeling bound to do the best he could with the material that came to his hand. So he shut his eyes at times to doubtful things rather than lose a useful colleague ; he condoned serious shortcomings in faithful followers, and helped to shield them when attacked ; he gratified vanities in weak men if by doing so he could gain support for large ends. He studied alike the strength and foibles of men and turned both, with consummate dexterity, towards the accomplishment of his large purposes. But these sins are as old as politics. Are we to blame the leader or the conditions of public life—themselves a reflex of the average tone of society—which force the hands of the leader ? A man with large patriotic plans in his mind finds his purposes thwarted or delayed by men whom he must either break or bend. Shall he adapt his methods to the human

POLITICAL METHODS

nature with which he has to deal, or give up the plans ? For the moral idealist, confident in the ultimate triumph of right, and counting, in his large way, a thousand years but as one day, there is but one answer. For the practical politician, whose concern is with the interests of to-day or to-morrow, the answer often seems nearly as ambiguous as the response of an ancient oracle. In that ambiguity Macdonald found latitude for a wide range of action. The arts of the politician were ingrained in his very nature and habits of thought as the natural result of long years spent amid the intrigues of provincial politics. To some it even seemed as if the skilful playing of the political game and the out-manceuvring of an opponent gave him as much satisfaction as did success in gaining the end to which all this was subsidiary.

So, like many another nation builder, he must be pronounced lacking in that delicate scrupulousness which shrinks from using unworthy men and unworthy means for the accomplishment even of great purposes. What opponents branded as political immorality, his apologists considered the necessary concessions of a strong leader to the temper and conditions of the time in which he lived and the weakness of the instruments with which he had to deal. There were those who conscientiously believed that, considering the imperfect development of public opinion in Canada in his time, the methods which he employed were the only ones which could

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have accomplished the great ends he had in view. Whether any end is worth gaining at such a price is a point upon which opinions will differ. There is reason to think that some of his political methods have, by their very success, left a stamp upon Canadian public life as undesirable as it has proved hard to efface. During his long tenure of power a tradition gradually sprung up that these methods were the only ones by which Canada could be governed. Certain it is that men who climbed into power by denouncing them have silently yielded to the persuasion of that tradition, and have gained and held power by similar means carried out on a larger scale and with more cunningly devised machinery. No honest Canadian, Conservative or Reformer, who knows how elections are conducted, will deny these things. Nor is it likely to be otherwise so long as individuals or communities put themselves up for sale. The temptation to buy is too great for ordinary human resistance. The only complete remedy is in the hands of the electors themselves.

One form of what might be called political corruption has long been used by Canadian politicians and accepted by Canadian constituencies as a more or less justifiable weapon of party struggle. In opening up a vast country like the Dominion the construction of public works on a great scale necessarily falls upon the shoulders of government. The demand for assistance to railways,

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canals, bridges, harbour equipment, public buildings, and so on, is always far in advance of the means at the command of an administration. A selection has to be made, and that selection lies in the hands of the party in power. That the selection should be made to favour friends seems to many as natural as the distribution of offices and appointments among political supporters. Thus men, who in their individual capacity would scorn a bribe, will in a collective capacity with little compunction give their votes in return for promised expenditure upon a railway or other public work, salving their conscience, perhaps, with the general argument of public utility.

In a closely contested election, such influences have so often proved decisive that they probably account in no slight degree for the prolonged continuance in office of any Canadian government which has once grasped the reins of power. This influence was used freely by Macdonald and his colleagues, as it has been freely used by their Liberal successors in office.

Are we to throw all the blame upon the men who manipulate the constituency, or shall we equally blame the constituency which lends itself wittingly and willingly, nay, eagerly, to manipulation? In these matters, to apologize for Macdonald is to arraign the general condition of Canadian politics. In all his earlier and later struggles the use of money—of patronage in public offices—the in-

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direct subsidizing of the party press by means of government printing and advertising—the diversion of support to public works in such a way as to strengthen at needful points the party in power, were all accepted, tacitly or openly, as counters in the political game. The fact that each party tried to conceal the worst features of what it thus did and to make its opponents appear the more corrupt, may be regarded as a tribute to the general soundness of the Canadian electorate, or at least, of its professed principles. But the fact that each party found it necessary to use such means, proves the existence of an element in the constituencies ready to be swayed by corrupt considerations.

It is doubtful whether it can honestly be said that Macdonald ever vigorously used his great influence to combat this evil, or even thought the contest was one that he was called upon to wage. A statesman of higher ideals might have done so. He accepted men at their own valuation and the world as he found it. But it was admitted on all hands that, if he was ready to offer corrupt inducements to others, he remained incorrupt himself. “These hands are clean,” he said, with dramatic earnestness after the Pacific Scandal, and his protestation was believed by the Canadian people so far as any suspicion was concerned that he had made mean gains or been actuated by petty personal motives in what he had done.

But if he was not so much of a political

KINDLINESS AND TACT

idealist as his best friends would have wished him to be, or as posterity would prefer that he had been, the special virtues which he did possess were such as appealed very strongly to ordinary human nature. A life of party struggle such as his could scarcely be entirely free from bitter animosities. But as a rule, and especially throughout his later life, his good humour and kindness were well-nigh invincible. The sunshine of his friendly nature shone on opponents as well as on supporters. He had a natural inclination to the use of those arts which so often control men's heads by influencing their hearts. Young members entering parliament were captivated by the friendly notice which, coming from a great leader, was in itself a subtle flattery. He was always ready to relieve the weariness of a long sitting or a dry debate by a joke—not always brilliantly witty, but at least spontaneous, and indicative of high spirits and intellectual readiness, and always gaining something from the manner of its delivery. The ponderous arguments of opponents in deadly earnest were often countered by an epigram or story, which, passing from mouth to mouth, and caught up by the press, seemed as effective, politically, as a reasoned reply, and with the public at large was often more so. An admirer has compiled a volume of anecdote and repartee¹ culled from newspaper reports of his speeches, from the pages

¹ Biggar's *Anecdotal Biography of Sir John Macdonald*.

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of Hansard, or from the personal recollections of friends. The natural kindness of Macdonald's heart is illustrated by this collection even more than the readiness or keenness of his wit. Retorts made even in the heat of party debate are singularly free from the sting which leaves behind the sense of pain.

I have said that he was no hypocrite. Even his own personal shortcomings he was wont to refer to with humorous frankness. On one occasion in the earlier stages of his career when he had been violently attacked in the columns of the *Globe* by his chief political opponent for some lapse into intemperance, his only rejoinder was to tell a large gathering of electors that, granting the truth of all that had been said, he knew that they would any day prefer "John A. drunk to George Brown sober." The story was current, too, that when D'Arcy McGee first joined his government Macdonald solemnly warned him that he (McGee) must reform his habits, since "no cabinet could afford to carry two drunkards."

In a somewhat similar vein he would at times refer to demands which he occasionally made upon his followers to support doubtful proceedings which in some way stood related to party interests. The late Principal Grant, the head of Queen's University, was one of his strongest and most ardent supporters in the Confederation of Canada, in his railway policy, and in other great measures. But there

AS A SPEAKER

came a time when with all the good-will in the world he could not continue his support. "How I wish," Sir John said to him one day at a social gathering, "that you would be a steady friend of mine." "But, Sir John, I have always supported you when I felt you were right." "My dear man," said the premier, with a friendly touch and a humorous twinkle of the eye, "I have no use for that species of friendship."

He was not an orator in the ordinary acceptation of that term. Few purple patches can be found among his speeches ; few passages either smell of of the lamp or smack of the school ; very few lend themselves to striking quotation. In beginning to speak, his manner was usually marked by a certain hesitation ; facility of expression set in with the full tide of thought. He often repeats himself—a fault from the literary point of view—inevitable in a speech not carefully prepared, but often a strength in appealing to the average audience which requires time to grasp an idea, and is glad to survey it at leisure and from slightly varying angles. But as a parliamentary debater he was extraordinarily effective, especially in his later years, when he had learned the art of self-control, and when unrivalled experience gave weight and prestige to all he said. His strength lay in getting at the heart of the matter under discussion. His thought is always of carrying his point—not of winning applause or impressing posterity. If he paid comparatively little

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attention to the form of his parliamentary speeches, full atonement was made by the careful thought given to the matter. His keen intellect grasped what was essential ; and the plain common sense which stamped his views carried more conviction with it than finished oratory could have done. Some of his more important speeches—notably that in which he moved in the legislature the resolutions which led up to Confederation, as also that in which he explained and defended the Washington Treaty in 1872, are models of clear arrangement and convincing exposition. His nearest approaches to eloquence are in passages inspired by patriotism. By nothing else was his imagination so touched as by the thought of his own country growing in greatness and dignity ; of an empire gaining new strength and honour from the upspringing of daughter nations.

Macdonald has left it on record that in the year after the general election of 1878, when in London with Sir Leonard Tilley and Sir Charles Tupper, they made a formal proposition to the British government of reciprocal trade on preferential terms. He had at that time private as well as official intercourse with Lord Beaconsfield, and the Right Hon. W. H. Smith, then leader of the House of Commons, and there is reason to think, from the correspondence that took place between him and those two statesmen, that had their government been supported in the election that came in the same

IMPERIAL FEDERATION

year, Macdonald's views might have received practical consideration. The defeat of the Beaconsfield administration and the return of Mr. Gladstone to power destroyed any hopes of immediate action that Macdonald may have entertained. But he returned to the question again and again as opportunity offered. To the movement inaugurated by the Right Hon. W. E. Forster and others in favour of imperial federation, he gave a cordial support so far as the general principle was concerned. While he had doubts about the possibility of working out the complete parliamentary federation of the empire, he was a firm believer in an ever strengthening union for trade, defence, and coöperation in questions of national policy. A material bond of mutual advantage in the exchange of products between the motherland and the colonies seemed to him a necessary supplement to the bond of sentiment, and in the last year of his life he mentions in a letter to a friend his intention to renew the formal offer of 1878, in case Lord Salisbury succeeded in the general election. It is an interesting fact that, at about the very time when Macdonald was stricken down by his last illness, another great empire builder, Cecil Rhodes, inditing to him a letter of congratulation on his recent electoral success, was suggesting, as he also did to Sir Henry Parkes in Australia, a united effort to bring about a system of preferential trade within the empire. That letter Macdonald never saw, but

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it was one with which he would have strongly sympathized, as many of his speeches clearly show. Indeed, through all his public speeches and all his legislation there is to be constantly discerned the central principle of his political faith that the supreme interest of Canada and the supreme interest of the empire are one. In that faith he began, and in that faith he ended, his political career.

He kept in close touch with imperial politics, and with many of the leading minds of the motherland. No doubt the intimate personal relations into which he was necessarily brought, as cabinet minister and premier, with the succession of distinguished public men who filled the post of governor-general during his time, had much to do with his political education and the remarkable grasp which he obtained of the broad principles of government.

He keenly enjoyed his many visits to England on public business, and the opportunity they furnished for discussion with the rulers of the empire. We are justified in believing that in range of national vision he was on the level with the best.

He was made a K.C.B. on the consummation of Confederation in 1867 ; was summoned to the Privy Council after the Washington Treaty in 1870, though not sworn in till seven years later ; and in 1884 he received, on the recommendation of Mr. Gladstone, the Grand Cross of the Bath. But the imperial honours thus bestowed upon him in re-

ADVERSE CIRCUMSTANCES

cognition of imperial service, were, after all, merely ratifications of Canadian judgment of his merits. This was equally true of the peerage conferred upon his widow after his death.

The conditions under which he won his way to commanding place and power are sufficiently striking. None of the adventitious circumstances which in older countries usually smooth the path of the rising statesman, were in his favour. From boyhood he was compelled to earn his own living and that of others. He had no influential family connection to give him support, nor any of that early educative association with the representatives of fixed political tradition which so commonly moulds the principles and gives consistency to the course of public men in the motherland. His political judgment had to be formed in reliance upon his own observation and common sense; his political philosophy by self-directed study. He was not endowed with those compelling powers of oratory which captivate the multitude, nor had university training given finish to his natural ability. His earlier political alliance was with the least popular party in the State, so that the weight of public sentiment as well as the political majority of his own province were often opposed to him.

That, notwithstanding these circumstances, usually regarded as obstacles, he worked steadily forward through so long a term of public life indicates the possession of exceptional qualities. They were quali-

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ties which appealed to widely different classes of people. The plodding farmer of Ontario and the plain fisherman or lumberman of the Maritime Provinces recognized in him that common sense in practical affairs which they most value and esteem. The light-hearted Frenchman of Quebec enjoyed his geniality and wit, and on points of national sensitiveness trusted in the sincerity of his sympathy. The strongest among his Canadian contemporaries cheerfully accepted him as their leader. A succession of governors-general, drawn from the highest ranks of English public life, pronounced him one of the ablest men with whom they had ever been called upon to deal.

There is therefore cumulative evidence that he possessed that combination of qualities which, here and there, among the masses of mankind, stamps an individual as an appointed ruler of men. Few statesmen have had more severe tests applied to their capacity for rule. In carrying out the necessary task of reconciling jealousies, not to say animosities, of race he must have had many a moment of great anxiety.

A large parliamentary group which on certain questions votes and acts independently of the motives which actuate the general policy of a party, must always be embarrassing to a party leader. In matters connected with the Church and education this is generally true of the French-Canadian, who for the most part feels bound in these things to take

EXCEPTIONAL QUALITIES

direction from his spiritual advisers, themselves nothing loath to push their influence in the field of politics. On the other hand, to a large part of the English-speaking population of Canada, trained in an entirely different school of thought, the exercise of such ecclesiastical influence is well-nigh anathema.

In Canada, again, the evils of a violent party press have at times been greatly aggravated by difference of language. In the early days of Confederation the French journals of Quebec had few readers in the English provinces ; outside the cities, the French-Canadian never read the papers of Ontario or the Maritime Provinces, and inside the cities very seldom. The circumstances furnished an unrivalled field for the reckless and irresponsible agitator. Translations, garbled or divorced from their context, often presented to the voters of one race false ideas of the acts or opinions of their fellow-citizens in another province. Skill, tact and patience of no ordinary kind were required to allay the whirlwinds of feeling thus originated, which swept over the provinces from time to time. No mere skill, however—nothing but a genuine understanding of and sympathy with the French character—could have done what Macdonald did in the management of Quebec. He appreciated the solid virtues which dwell in the *habitant* and had a large tolerance for his peculiarities. He recognized his inherited impulsiveness and made due allowance

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for it. But brought up among people of Scottish descent he understood the Puritan temper as well, though perhaps less in sympathy with it. In his early years he had himself joined the Orange body, and, though the connection did not continue, he understood the spirit of the organization. Between conflicting races and temperaments he acted not only as a buffer, breaking the force of collision, but also, to no small extent, as reconciler and peacemaker.

It was those who best knew the difficulties with which he had to deal, who most fully appreciated in this respect the work which he did. Speaking of Macdonald in 1881, Lord Dufferin, who was governor-general at the time of his overthrow in 1873, said :—

“ I am inclined to think that what bears most conclusive testimony to his extraordinary talents has been the even tenor with which Canada has pursued her successful way during recent years, the absence of all serious complications from her history, and the freedom from all anxiety on her account which we have enjoyed during the last half century, notwithstanding the peculiar delicacy of her geographical position and the ethnological diversity of her population, with the conflicting interests it naturally engenders. What might have happened had the affairs of our great dependency been directed by a less cautious and less skilful or a less patriotic pilot, those only who are well acquainted

PARLIAMENTARY LIFE IN CANADA

with the intricacies of Canadian political problems can adequately appreciate."

Throughout the whole course of his official life Macdonald was a poor man. His case is not exceptional. It has been a common lot of the largest figures in the public life of Canada. A new country has no large class of men with fixed wealth and hereditary position, such as exists in older lands, to be drawn upon for public service performed merely as a matter of public duty, or for the honours which it brings. Even if such a class did exist the democratic spirit of the people does not favour the absorption of political power by the wealthy alone. The public life of Canada has been largely recruited from the ranks of professional, commercial or industrial ability. But in this, as in other things, it is impossible to serve two masters. The business of a professional or commercial man must suffer when he gives his time and best thought to the service of the public. This difficulty is accentuated in Canada, as compared with England, by the vast size of the country, which compels the man who devotes himself to parliamentary life to remain for months together far removed from his business interests. The result is that political success has usually gone hand in hand with narrowness of private means. The circumstance that nearly all of Canada's premiers have so far been poor men is, from more than one point of view, an honour to the country and the men--to the country which gives an equality of opportunity

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to merit irrespective of fortune—to the men, no one of whom has used his position as a means of enriching himself. Nor is the fact without its gains to balance manifest disadvantages. The poor man is, indeed, in a less independent position as regards the retention of place and power than one whose wealth makes him indifferent personally to the vicissitudes of politics. On the other hand public men drawn chiefly from a wealthy class can scarcely hope to have an intimate sympathy with the ordinary life of the people, or a full understanding of its conditions. Macdonald had both in a degree that he could never have attained save in that hard school of experience in which his early life was passed. His youth had made him familiar with the lot of the poor; and fortunately these early struggles never made him greedy of wealth.

In one sense he might be considered, at least in his later years, as a professional politician, but no man ever took part in public life who thought less of the material advantages which are supposed to furnish the motive of that type of man. For the service of his country he gave up professional success, which was easily within his grasp, and he put aside, more than once, judicial appointments which would have given him freedom from financial care. His indifference to money for its own sake—his carelessness, indeed, about money in the management of his private resources, were well known. It was only the accident of complete prostration by

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illness in 1870 that revealed to his friends the fact that the man who had for so many years been giving all the best that was in him to the service of his country was practically penniless, and had made no provision for his family. A sum of about seventy thousand dollars was raised by his friends at the time, but it was wisely placed in the hands of trustees to manage for the benefit of those he might leave behind. To a man of this temper people were ready to forgive that love of power which he never disclaimed.

In nearly all the large towns of Canada statues have been erected to transmit to posterity the figure and the fame of the great premier. They are tributes of admiration from a people, sections of whom often differed widely from the public policy of the politician, but who were united in sincere regard and affection for the man and the patriot. Before his death he had become the "Grand Old Man" of Canadian public life. His long experience in public affairs ; his unrivalled knowledge of the conditions with which he had to deal ; his unequalled skill in manipulating the various factors in the political problem ; his freedom from fanaticism ; his high sense of courtesy in political life ; his enthusiastic faith in the future of Canada ; his consistent loyalty to the great imperial idea, all combined to make him stand out among his fellows as by far the most conspicuous and influential man in the Dominion.

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Slowly, through more than three centuries of difficulty, conflict and doubt, from painful but picturesque beginnings, the history of Canada has gradually unfolded itself, until there has emerged a nationhood of distinct type, the resultant of many contrasted and often conflicting forces. The romantic daring of the early pioneers in war and commerce ; the dauntless courage of the Roman Catholic missionary ; the Frenchman's loyalty to creed, race and language ; the Puritan zeal for spiritual independence ; the mingled love of liberty and devotion to noble tradition which stamped the United Empire Loyalist ; the opposing passion of the two more virile and dominant races of the last centuries—Celt and Saxon ; these and many other streams of influence have gone to mould Canadian institutions and Canadian character. As a net result of all, the present of the Dominion has become a pride, its future an inspiration, to all its sons. The man who drew together all these complicated threads, who welded the northern half of the North American continent into a united whole, who held it true to its British relationship while retaining an individuality all its own, will always live in the grateful memory not only of his own Canadian people, but of the British race.

And if against the greatness of the man history must set the shortcomings which he himself so candidly admitted, Canadians who are just, and who know the conditions, political and moral,

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under which their great leader wrought out his life work, will not leave him to bear alone the burden of blame.

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SIR GEORGES ÉTIENNE CARTIER



Geo. M. Carter

THE MAKERS OF CANADA

SIR GEORGES
CARTIER

BY

ALFRED D. DECELLES

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CHAPTER I

YOUTH AND REVOLT

WHEN Georges Étienne Cartier, the subject of this biography, entered the political arena, his native province of Lower Canada was on the verge of sedition. Carried away, like all the young men of his day, by the eloquence of that powerful tribune, Papineau, he one day found himself in open rebellion against the British crown, of which he was, in a few years, to be one of the most stalwart supporters. The contradiction, however, between Cartier's two antagonistic attitudes is more apparent than real. His opposition, which drifted into revolt, was not directed against the British sovereign, but against the party, an insignificant minority, who, having laid their hands on the government, used it for their special ends and profit, and denied to French Canadians all the privileges and rights of the British subject. But as soon as self-government was granted to Lower Canada, no more loyal upholder of the British constitution than Cartier was to be met in North America.

It is not our purpose to attempt a justification of the furious agitation which culminated in open battle at St. Denis and St. Charles. But is it not fair to ask whether the administrators of the day

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had not abused the patience of the people beyond the limits of endurance, when year after year they resisted the legitimate requests of the Canadians for constitutional government in fact as well as in name? Since 1800 the discontented Canadians had been asked: "But have you not a most liberal constitution: why do you complain?" The fact of the matter is that the governor and the legislative council had concentrated all authority in their hands and constantly frustrated the will of the lower house. The representatives of the people were in the positions of persons craving water: they were offered an excellent glass, but it was empty. They had been since 1820 asking for the complete control of the provincial finances, and in 1837 Lord John Russell's resolutions placed it practically in the hands of the executive.

In no other section of the country did the feeling against the hated bureaucrats—the family compact of Lower Canada—run so high as along the Richelieu. The pretty villages, extending on both sides of the river from Sorel to Chambly, with fine churches raising their tall spires, and neat looking farm-houses, give one the impression of a rich and happy land, too happy to be a scene of bloody encounters. In those days, St. Ours, St. Charles, St. Marc, St. Antoine and Chambly were the seats of aristocratic French families, from whom the people took their direction in politics. With the advent of democracy and the progress of education among

BIRTH AND PARENTAGE

the people, this has all been changed, and many of those influential families have also disappeared. But when Papineau, at the full height of his furious attacks against the government, determined to strike a great blow to show his power, it was at St. Charles that he convened the delegates of the six counties.

At St. Antoine, one of those hotbeds of rebellion, Cartier was born of parents who traced their genealogy to the family of Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada. His ancestors had come to this country in 1759 and settled at Quebec, which they left in 1760 to build up a new home at St. Antoine. His grandfather and father were merchants. Cartier once stated that he should have followed their calling instead of studying law. To atavism he owed his taste and aptitude for business and his strong grasp of matters pertaining to trade and commerce.

When old enough to attend school he was sent to the Montreal College, then as now under the management of the Sulpicians, or *les Messieurs de St. Sulpice* as they were called in the old style. The process of his intellectual formation was not different from that of any French lad in the hands of the priests. This process is peculiar enough in itself and in its surprising results to be worth describing to persons not familiar with the customs prevailing in Quebec.

It must indeed seem strange and abnormal to our

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English-speaking citizens to see British subjects of the twentieth century brought up and educated under rules laid down when Louis XIV reigned, and modified only in minor details later on to suit the times. The substantial education dispensed to the youth of Quebec is still almost wholly permeated with French notions of the seventeenth century. The craving for hero worship is gratified in the history of France, whose traditions of glory and honour form part of our national inheritance. In literature, Bossuet, Racine, Fénelon, and all the writers of the *grand siècle* are the models offered to the imitation and admiration of young French Canadians, who seldom come in contact with Shakespeare and Milton except in translated excerpts. Moreover, English is indifferently taught in the Quebec schools. For years it was viewed by many as the language of heresy and of the conqueror. Fortunately, as a counterpoise to this apparently anti-English education, there exists the all-powerful teaching of the Church, who claims for herself and for all powers submission and obedience. The first duty of the subject in civil and political order is subordination to the government which holds its rule from God: *Omnis potestas a Deo*. Under the beneficent ecclesiastical influence, social and religious asperities are worn out and smoothed down; and it is with a strong sense of sacred obligation that Catholics offer in their Church prayers for their separate brethren.

EDUCATION IN QUEBEC

No more moral and severe tuition could be given, nor under closer watchfulness. The pupils of the Quebec colleges are daily reminded of their duties to **God, their neighbours, and the state.** Thanks to the clerical teaching with its strong conservative tendencies, the mind of the young French Canadian is shaped on the mould of monarchical ideas; with the effect of binding it to English institutions in preference to democratic systems of government. The natural consequence of this education did not escape Lord Elgin's penetrating observation. He attributed to it the loyalty of the French Canadian to Britain, and he has this in his mind when writing to Lord Grey in 1848: "Let them feel that their religion, their habits, are more considered here than in other portions of this vast continent; who will venture to say that the last hand which waves the British flag on American ground may not be that of a French Canadian?"

A century and a half of loyal devotion to the British crown, strongly exemplified during the American wars of 1775 and 1812, stands to prove the striking truth of Guizot's opinion, himself a Protestant, that the Catholic Church is a school of respect. Out of respect for the government springs submission to its command and control.

The influence of Papineau must have been overpowering, and the petty persecutions of the oligarchy of the Château St. Louis very exasperating, to have overcome temporarily in Cartier's soul the loyal

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sentiments which he had imbibed at St. Sulpice. The fact of the matter is that the rulers at Quebec seemed to have concentrated their efforts to hurt the feelings and pride of the French subjects. At every turn of their civil and political life they were made to feel that the governors and their friends considered them an inferior race, unfit to take a share in the government of the country. The work of the lower house at Quebec was rendered barren, the legislative council constantly nullifying its efforts. Even the military authorities in those days took sides with the oligarchy, and never failed to look down with scorn on the *habitants*. But, we may ask, was not the Canada Act of 1791 a great advance on previous imperial legislation? It undeniably was, but is it not also a fact that the best constitution may become an instrument of persecution and injustice in the hands of obtuse or wily men deprived of the sense of justice? Even Upper Canada had grievances under the Act of 1791, but the problem to be solved there was not so complex; it was free from questions of race and almost free from those of religion.

Is it to be wondered that the intelligent youth of the day rallied around Papineau, who then stood as the living symbol of the demand for justice of a down-trodden population? The oppression of the rulers must have been galling, for it arrayed against them level-headed and moderate men like La Fontaine, and even sweet-tempered, easy-going

A TOUCH OF REBELLION

men like Morin. Cartier was drawn towards the patriots by his fiery temper and the strong conviction that he and his friends were under a ban in their own country. Moreover, was he not breathing the spirit of insubordination in the law firm of Maître Edouard Rodier, the great tribune of the Montreal suburbs, and second only to Papineau as a convincing, blood-stirring orator? Under these strong influences he was only too well prepared to join *Les Fils de la Liberté* when that society was organized in imitation of the American Sons of Liberty. He became their poet in spite of the muses, for he lacked the sacred fire. Still his lines, patriotism helping, were soul-inspiring, and the *Fils de la Liberté* sang them to the top of their voices when parading the streets of Montreal in search of their enemies of the Doric Club.

Our poet and law student was carried away with his friends; his fervour soon capped the climax, and when Colonel Gore marched on St. Denis to crush the incipient rebellion, Cartier shouldered a musket with the other raw recruits armed with shot-guns and scythes. It was a miracle that they repulsed the Waterloo veterans. A few days later his ardour and enthusiasm urged him on to the neighbouring parish of St. Charles, where Nelson met a terrible defeat at the hands of Colonel Wetherall. When more tranquil days brought Cartier to power, he was often taken to task for the part he had taken in the rebellion. His

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opponents were wont to represent him fighting in *habitant* garb with the blue bonnet—*la tuque bleue*—then worn by his countrymen. Cowardice was also hinted at, but it has been established beyond controversy that he behaved bravely under fire. At St. Charles he was entrusted by Nelson with a mission which required both pluck and nerve: namely, to cross the Richelieu under the enemy's fusillade to get supplies from St. Marc on the opposite shore.

Under the scathing fire of Wetherall, the peasantry scattered in every direction, and Cartier attempted to seek a refuge in the United States. It was late in the autumn; the cold, rainy weather of November and the bad roads rendered the young patriot's flight painful. He wandered through the forests, suffering from want of food and the inclemency of the season, and finally lost his way. Then the safest course seemed to him to retrace his steps and find some hiding place near home. He succeeded in reaching Varennes, where a farmer harboured him during the winter. It was reported at the time that he had perished in the woods, and *Le Canadien*, of Quebec, lamented the death of this young man full of genial qualities, to whom the future promised a brilliant career.

When spring returned it was considered safer for Cartier to abandon his retreat, and place the American frontier between himself and the police, who were scouring the country about Montreal in search

EXTENUATING CIRCUMSTANCES

of rebels. He reached Burlington, where he remained until Gosford's amnesty proclamation allowed him to return to Montreal, which he entered wholly free of the illusions under which he had lately lived, but not regretting the sacrifice he had made to the cause of freedom. He knew that liberty is often dearly bought, and that frequently it rises out of streams of blood.

If it were my purpose to attempt a justification of the insurrection of 1837, might not that outburst find extenuating circumstances in the fact that it was not committed through malice aforethought, but was the spontaneous movement of a people labouring under great provocation? The opening of the hostilities occurred as follows: on a certain day the *habitants* of St. Charles and St. Denis were told that warrants had been issued against their leaders, men whose life-long devotion to the popular cause had won the trust and gratitude of every Lower Canadian. These men were known to them as ardent patriots, animated by a boundless love for their country. It is not surprising then that, swayed by a natural indignation, they should have promptly resolved to protect Papineau and Nelson who were in their midst.

There was in this insurrection one of those chivalrous impulses impossible to suppress, which one is compelled to admire, although it is condemned and reproved by calm judgment. Therefore the French Canadians will ever piously treasure up the memory

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of those peasants, brave men though deluded, who, with a few muskets, scythes, and sticks, dared to engage in a fight with soldiers ranking with the best the world had seen. To the gratitude of posterity towards the men of 1837 has been added a large measure of admiration, and now it is widely admitted that this spontaneous rebellion hastened the advent of constitutional liberty, and secured for the whole race the coveted rights of British subjects so long withheld from them. A heavy cloud shrouded the horizon in those troublous times, but it was blown away with the smoke of battle, and there appeared the dawn of the better days which all Canada now enjoys.

CHAPTER II

CANADA AFTER THE REBELLION

WHEN Cartier returned to Canada, after his unfortunate experience in the ill-advised rebellion, the country was living its darkest days, and for several years it seemed as though the French Canadian race was doomed to political servitude. If a storm bursts on the ocean the billows keep up their motions a long time after its fury has abated. Likewise in the political order, when a country has been convulsed by a rebellion, the consequences of the outbreak are felt after its suppression. In Lower Canada it was not until 1846 that the province finally regained its equilibrium, after ministerial responsibility had duly been accepted by all concerned.

The first outcome of the political trouble of 1837 was the suspension by the British parliament of the constitution of 1791, under which Lower Canada had been ruled for forty-six years. It was replaced by the Special Council, a body composed of crown nominees entrusted with the *pro tempore* government of the country. In 1838, Lord Durham made an inquiry into the state of the province, and reported to the home government the causes, from his standpoint, of the past troubles, and proposed as a prevention of their recurrence the union of

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Lower with Upper Canada, so as to place in power an overwhelming English majority, which would annihilate French influence altogether, and bring about in time the complete anglicization of the population. Mr. Poulett Thomson was sent out to Canada to carry out in part Lord Durham's suggestion, and set the new political machine in motion.

The new governor-general, a self-made man of very high attainments, had made his mark in the House of Commons, where he was looked upon as a most clever parliamentarian. His published correspondence bears evidence to the brilliancy of his mind, which was tinged by gleams of sceptical humour. He would have been well fitted for his high office, had he not allowed himself to be influenced on his arrival here against the population of Lower Canada, and it might be said, against Canadians in general, if we may judge from the off-hand manner in which he spoke privately of his ministers. The task of obtaining the Special Council's approval of the union scheme was an easy one. It was voted almost unanimously, although the French population of Lower Canada registered their protest against it. How could they assume another attitude? Their death-warrant was asked for in Lord Durham's report, wherein he pointed out that it was in the interest of the British Empire that they should be merged into the Anglo-Saxon race. Lord Durham had exposed the faults of the constitution

PROPOSED TERMS

of 1791, which had fostered the grievances long complained of, and which were the cause of the recent outbreak. Was it reasonable that the faults of that instrument should be visited upon them?

After his success with the Special Council, Thomson directed his efforts towards Upper Canada, where the population was not averse to the union. At its session of 1839, the Upper Canada legislative assembly accepted the proposal on the following terms:

1. That the seat of government of the united provinces should be in Upper Canada.

2. That the members returned to the assembly from each province should be, from Lower Canada fifty, from Upper Canada sixty-two, with a faculty of increase with increase of population.

3. That after a time, not later than 1845, the elective franchise in counties should be restricted to those holding their lands in free and common socage.

4. That the English language alone should be spoken and used in the legislature and in courts of justice, and in all other public proceedings.

These resolutions, had they been put in force, would have stripped the French Canadians of all political power, disfranchised them, and finally made them strangers not only in parliament but also in their courts of justice. The corporation of Toronto was in perfect harmony with the House, for it had sent an address to Thomson embodying senti-

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ments very hostile to Lower Canada. Thomson lectured the Upper Canadians mildly, and made them understand that their demands could not be entertained. He disliked, it is true, the eastern province, where, according to his notion, "the climate, the soil, and the population are below par," but he felt that such an act of proscription as was asked for would be worthy only of an eastern despot, although the ultimatum of the Upper Canadians seemed in harmony with Lord Durham's recommendations. His plan was, therefore, to place the union scheme on a more acceptable basis, and to substitute as a motive power self-interest for national prejudice. This was not brought about without a prodigious deal of management, in which, as he said, "My House of Commons tactics stood me in good stead." He drew the legislative council's and assembly's attention to the straits in which the province was then placed for want of money. The fact of the matter is that it was on the verge of bankruptcy. With an annual revenue of not more than £78,000, the charge for interest on its debt was £65,000, and the permanent expenses of government £55,000, leaving an annual deficiency of £42,000. On the other hand Lower Canada had no debt, but had a surplus of £300,000. Thomson's appeal succeeded, and the legislature, foregoing its first conditions, accepted rescue from bankruptcy by the compelled help of Lower Canada. Lord Metcalfe was justified when he said a few

SYDENHAM'S TRIUMPH

years later: "The union was effected without the consent of Lower Canada, and with the hesitating but purchased assent of Upper Canada." The writer does not recall the above facts to indulge in retrospective recrimination, but to depict the situation in which Cartier stood in his early days, and also to indicate how greatly public opinion has been elevated since 1840; then the proscription of a whole race was asked for, and now Canadians from all parts do not look upon the presence of a French Canadian at the head of the state as an abnormal fact.

The machinery of union was put in motion by Thomson (now Lord Sydenham). With the utmost boldness he threw himself into the electoral battle in Lower Canada, using all the government influence against French candidates, and finally won the day. His majority in the new House was enormous, and from his own point of view he could well boast of having the French Canadians at his feet. There seemed but little hope for the latter to get even a small share in the government of the country. Through their representative men, the clergy and the best citizens of Quebec and Montreal, they had protested against the union without avail. What was next to be done? A certain number of them, giving up all hopes of getting justice, proposed to continue the battle of former days, and to become irreconcilable opponents of British rule; the larger number were disposed to wait and take advantage of

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circumstances. It occurred to them that the English majority would not long remain compact under the pressure of divergent interests, and that an alliance might be formed with one faction or the other. Such was the view that La Fontaine and Cartier took of the situation. Cartier was not to sulk under his tent and remain in constant opposition. But his buoyant courage led him to expect a day of reckoning for his enemies. His foresight did not fail him on this occasion, and he hoped to turn the compulsory marriage into *un mariage de raison*.

Although the Union Act conceded responsible government to Canada, it was not the governor's intention to allow his ministers full scope in the matter of ruling the country. The elections had returned to parliament a body of men bound to execute the absolute will of the governor. This would not meet the views of Robert Baldwin, who seeing that the governor was determined to give his cabinet the appearance of power but to keep the reality in his hands, resigned his portfolio to form an alliance with Mr. La Fontaine, the head of the French Canadian party. It is through the exertions and courage of these two men, great and noble characters, that Canada finally secured ministerial responsibility. After Lord Sydenham's death, Sir Charles Bagot called the Liberal leaders to his council, giving them full power to put the Union Act into operation according to its spirit and to English precedents. Unfortunately, Bagot's term of

VIGER'S APOSTASY

office was cut short by his demise, and Sir Charles Metcalfe, who had played the part of a pro-consul in India, and who thought that colonials were not mentally equipped for self-government, attempted to rule according to his own ideas, which were those of Sydenham. This brought on a crisis, resulting in the resignation of La Fontaine and Baldwin, who were superseded by the Draper ministry, composed of English Canadians, with the exception of D. B. Viger. The latter was an old-time Liberal, one of Papineau's lieutenants during the late trouble, and his acceptance of office was a surprise to his countrymen, and considered almost as a betrayal of the national cause. He sought re-election in St. Hyacinthe, where he met a determined opposition. Cartier took the field against him, a circumstance to be noted, for it was then (1844) that he made the first political speech of which we have a record. The future minister took occasion to condemn his past career, and to criticize the methods used to bring about a desirable end. He laid the blame on the older men, whom he thought responsible for the outbreak of 1837, and was very outspoken in his denunciation of Viger. "The responsibility of the unfortunate events of 1837," said he, "rests on the leaders of the public opinion of that time. Mr. Viger was one of them. He should have used the influence which he then wielded to give better advice to his countrymen. He and his friends, as politicians, should have had

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more foresight and more wisdom. Now Mr. Viger is striving to divide Lower Canadians by giving a helping hand to the schemes of Sir Charles Metcalfe; but Lower Canada will let them know in a few days by an almost unanimous voice, that it remains attached to ministerial responsibility, on which depends, in the present and in the future, the salvation of Lower Canada." Viger was defeated, chiefly through Cartier's vigorous effort in favour of constitutional government, and the victory was but the forerunner of the triumph of Baldwin and La Fontaine, who were returned to power in 1846. With them finally triumphed responsible government in its entirety.

As far as Cartier is concerned, this election is interesting because it gave him an opportunity to express his opinion on the troubles which had supplied him with experience dearly bought—a narrow escape from the gallows, proscription, and exile with its accompanying hardships. The past methods of dealing with political grievances then appeared to the sobered enthusiast as dangerous. In after life he never forgave Papineau for taking advantage of his want of experience to enroll him under the flag of rebellion, and has seldom a kind word to say for the famous tribune. Although Cartier, in the speech just quoted, was very severe on his past conduct, he cuts the figure of a half-repentant rebel, when, in addressing his former companions in arms, he extols their bravery: "Electors

CARTIER'S APPEAL

of St. Denis, you showed your pluck and daring bravery, when, on November 22nd, 1837, with a few muskets, hay-forks, and sticks as weapons, you conquered Gore's troops. I was with you, and I have not been found, I think, wanting in courage. To-day I call upon you to give a greater and more sensible proof of patriotic intelligence; I entreat you to fight with your votes—a more formidable weapon—those men bent upon keeping up the oppression of the past by robbing the country of the advantages of responsible government. Yes, voters of this noble parish, do your duty, set a salutary example, and all Lower Canada will be proud of you." As he appeared in this, his first important political campaign, outspoken, fearless of the political consequences of his speech, so we shall find him throughout his career. His great success in life was in part due to his sincerity and uprightness, which stamped him as one to be trusted under all circumstances. In his declining years, he prided himself upon never having broken his promise; his word in all things was a word of honour. When the Queen conferred a baronetcy upon him he chose as his motto *Franc et sans dol* (Honest and without deceit). This motto seems a natural outgrowth of his qualities, the true expression of his life, characterized as it was by his loyalty to Canada and devotion to his friends.

CHAPTER III

IN PUBLIC LIFE

CANADIANS who have made their mark in public life have, as a rule, entered parliament when comparatively young. It was in 1849, at the age of thirty-four, that Cartier took his seat in the House of Assembly to represent Verchères. Late as his *début* was, it did not prevent him from advancing with rapid strides towards the treasury benches. His success is easily accounted for when one considers his talents and long preparation for public life. It had never occurred to him, as it does to so many, that it is possible to engage in politics without preliminary studies. He had a high conception of public life, with the many and heavy responsibilities which it throws on the man who is actuated by a nobler aim than mere personal advancement.

He was a born ruler of men. Nature, it seems, endows certain individuals with the gift of command as she adorns others with the genius of poetry. Such men as Cartier are seldom met with in our midst. It is surprising to note how numerous are the ready and fluent speakers among the French population, and how few are fit to lead. To grasp a situation, to foresee the evolution of public opinion,

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with its bearing on events, are parts of the art of government. Cartier had the mastery of that art to a high degree. It was his good fortune soon to acquire that great authority which eminence in knowledge and talent gives. He was a man of quick resolve, a faculty also seldom found in politicians. Thanks to his aptitudes, the actual leadership of his party fell into his hands before he was officially called to assume it. His influence was so great at the outset that in 1851 he was offered a portfolio in the Hincks-Morin administration. Two years later Lord Elgin and Mr. Hincks pressed him to become a member of the cabinet. It was only in 1855, when Morin was called to the bench, that he was finally persuaded to accept the responsibilities which he could no longer refuse. But before he entered the cabinet he had played the part of a minister in the House. In fact he led the government forces, supporting their measures, fighting their battles, and extending a sort of protection over them.

When Cartier consented to take a portfolio he was at the head of an important law firm in Montreal, and briefs came into his hands in great number from the best mercantile establishments; the Grand Trunk Railway Company, then in its infancy, also entrusted him with its business. From 1855 to the day of his death, in 1873, his name remained with the firm of Cartier, Pominville & Bétournay; but, as it will presently be shown, public

RIVALS AND ASSOCIATES

duties kept him away from the Montreal court-house and a profitable business. He was admitted to the bar in 1835, and his legal training of almost twenty years was an excellent preparation for parliament. His mind had become permeated with those sound principles of law which gave him such power in debate on the floor of the House. His legal knowledge was also of use in another and a more important field: it helped him to follow closely the tradition of the "*coutume de Paris*" in framing the legislation of his native province. To this day the large number of statutes which his activity put through parliament bear the imprint of his strong mind. For twenty-five years Cartier was in power, with but short intervals of opposition. It will not be out of place to show how he succeeded in maintaining himself in office for such a long term, at the head of a party full of conflicting ideas, and in a democratic community antagonistic, by natural instinct, to long-standing cabinets. This success was not due to his sterling merit alone, but to causes which it will be interesting to note, so that his career may be clearly understood.

Cartier's long tenure in office was not due to a lack of talented men, for at no time in the political history of Canada were there in the field more distinguished men than in his day. Not to mention Papineau, La Fontaine, and Morin, who belong to the previous generation, it is possible to rank very near him several able lawyers and clever writers. In the

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first place stood Cauchon, a fine speaker and a vigorous journalist. He had very few equals as a polemist, and with his constitutional knowledge he would have made his mark even in England. He wielded in *Le Journal de Québec* a powerful pen against those whom he was pleased to call the enemies of his race and religion, George Brown and his followers. His ambition was to become the leader of the Conservatives, but Cartier barred the way, and the latter received from this rival but an indifferent support. Cauchon was the leader of the Conservatives in the district of Quebec, where, with the young men of the day, he kept the Liberals at bay—led though they were by such men as Fournier, Plamondon, and Huot. Cauchon wrote the best commentaries on the Quebec Conference resolution, which became the British North America Act. It was this able contribution to the discussion of the confederation scheme that was largely instrumental in gaining the approval of the clergy, who at first were loath to accept the proposed new order of things. With less talent Sicotte also played an important part in parliament among the followers of Cartier, until he left him to form the Liberal Macdonald-Sicotte administration. Chauveau was another prominent Conservative, but his literary attainments finally inclined him towards more congenial labours than those of a member of parliament, and he assumed the honourable and important duties of superintendent of public education. Near these politicians was

LIBERAL LEADERS

also to be found the bright and fascinating Loranger, a ready speaker, bristling with irony and sarcasm, who seemed called to advancement in public life, and deservedly so. The men just referred to were Conservatives of a more or less pronounced type.

Arrayed against Cartier, the Liberals had at their head men of whom they were justly proud: Aimé Dorion, Papineau's disciple, with his brother Eric, surnamed "*l'Enfant terrible*;" and next to them Laflamme, Dessaulles, Fournier, Doutre, Daoust, Laberge, Papin—all popular speakers, all with generous, but none the less with misconceived, aspirations. Most of them attained a high position after Cartier had disappeared from the arena. They would probably have conquered him long before he died had they not been handicapped by their radical ideas and compromised by their "clear Grit" allies of Upper Canada, who were then clamouring against the institutions of the Eastern Province. Great admirers of Papineau, holding the liberal ideas which the oppression of former days had fostered, they were ready to fill their sails with the wind of radicalism which during the Revolution of 1848 in France swept all over the world.

The downfall of Louis Philippe and the proclamation of the Republic had produced an immense impression in Canada. As a consequence a democratic party was organized, and the French Canadian Liberal party, led by La Fontaine, was split

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into two sections. At that time there was no organization bearing the name Conservative in the Province of Quebec. The new faction followed Papineau and Aimé Dorion. Their platform smacked of the French revolutionary notions of 1848; it was akin to Louis Blanc's red-hot tirades against monarchy and its real or pretended abuses.

One cannot read to-day the democratic programme of 1849 without smiling. It was evidently the production of very inexperienced young men, brimful of an enthusiasm which made them accept the utopian dreams of their French prototypes on social questions. They, however, stopped short of socialism. The reforms which they advocated to bring about the millenium in Canada, comprised annual parliaments, an elective judiciary, even annexation to the United States!

A paper, *L'Avenir*, was started in the interest of the would-be reformers, whose trend of ideas may be gathered from the following extract of their appeal to the public, evolved at a meeting of the *Club démocratique* of Montreal, the head of the party faction: "Democrats by conviction," said the programme, "and of French Canadian origin, it grieves us to think that the electric fluid of democracy, which flashes over the civilized world, would run through Canada uselessly for want of a conducting wire on the soil of this New World. Without universal suffrage, where is the legitimate and rational consecration of authority? Will it be the drop of oil from

INFLUENCE OF FRENCH DEMOCRACY

La Sainte Ampoule (the vial used at the coronation of French kings) dripping on his forehead that will transform a man into a monarch and legislator for a whole nation? It is our misfortune not to look upon sovereignty in that light. We then shall take the liberty of discarding the oily performance of Rheims, and give our preference to the strong and pure consecration which in 1848 burst forth from the soul of a noble people. In former ages, Christianity, sciences, arts and printing were given to the nations to civilize them; now popular education, commerce and universal suffrage will make them free."

It would be unfair to saddle the whole Liberal party with the responsibility of the ultra-radicalism of 1849; many disapproved of it and dreaded its exaggerations. But they had thrown in their lot with these men of anti-British and anti-Catholic sentiment, and in consequence they found themselves out of harmony with the clergy and the great bulk of their countrymen. Referring to these misguided politicians of fifty years ago, Sir Wilfrid Laurier once said,¹ "The only excuse of these Liberals was their youth, the oldest of them was not twenty-two. . . . However, they had hardly advanced a few steps in life when they perceived their great error. As early as 1852 they published another newspaper, leaving *L'Avenir* to

¹ Discours sur le libéralisme politique par W. Laurier, Québec, 26 juin, 1877.

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the hot-headed, and they tried to find, but not always with success, it is true, the new path which the friends of liberty should follow under the new constitution. . . . The clergy, alarmed at their conduct, which recalled too much the attitude of European revolutionists, declared an unmerciful war on the new party. The English population, friendly to liberty, but also loving order, turned against the new party, which for twenty-five years has remained in opposition."

These were not the only compromising connections of the Liberals. They were unmistakably associated with George Brown, the avowed enemy of Lower Canada, who was at that time fighting for Protestant and English supremacy. Brown's policy of representation by population was a principle just in itself, perhaps, but contrary to the Union Act of 1840, which gave equal representation to both provinces. Dorion accepted population as the basis of representation, and it was this concession to his Grit ally, which drew from Cartier this bitter remark to Dorion: "Your friend Laberge has stated that when you accepted representation by population, you cast the cannon ball that killed the Liberal party."

It has been charged against Cartier that he courted clerical influence, and against the Lower Canadian priests that they threw into the struggle the weight of their spiritual power in favour of the Conservatives. All this was greatly exaggerated for

THE RESULTS OF RADICALISM

political purposes, but even if the clergy had stepped into the arena, who would blame them to-day? Was it not simply for them a question of self-defence? Could they remain absolutely neutral when both their national and religious existence were at stake? Could they close their ears when powerful men, riding the "Protestant horse," clamoured vociferously: "No popery and down with French domination"?

It was their dangerous allies and their radical programme that kept Dorion and his friends in opposition so long, and gave Cartier such powerful hold over his countrymen. Had political issues been confined to economic questions, to tariff, trade and commerce, he could not have withstood for so long the assaults of such able men as Dorion, Fournier, Laflamme, Laberge, and a host of others equally brilliant and full of generous aspirations for the welfare of the people, but with ill-conceived notions for reaching the desired goal. It was their misfortune to maintain their opponents in power. In 1863, Cartier boasted at Toronto that out of forty-two constituencies the Liberals had only carried thirteen.

Time and experience taught a severe lesson to Dorion and his friends, who finally eschewed radicalism. Yet suspicion clung to them for many years, even after confederation, although the contest between the Conservatives and Liberals was then waged on immediate political issues. In 1872, at the suggestion of Messrs. Jetté, F. Langelier,

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Laurier, Pelletier, Mercier, David, and several younger men of the party, an effort was made to place Liberalism under other colours. A meeting was held at Quebec on March 8th, and resolutions embodying the views of the leaders on strictly political issues, were adopted. A letter was read from Mercier in which he eulogized the clergy and requested them, in the meantime, to consider him and his co-religionists as friends. It was an attempt to dispel all past misunderstandings. The new organization then appeared in the field as *Le Parti National*, with an organ called *Le National*, published in Montreal.

Thus the Liberals broke away from all notions repugnant to the great mass of French Canadians. The doubts which still overhung their fortune melted away by degrees, and the day dawned when they appeared just as orthodox as their opponents. By a curious coincidence, the first important victim of the reorganized party was Cartier himself, who was defeated at the general election of 1872.

CHAPTER IV

IN POWER

IT was in the month of January, 1855, that Cartier was for the first time sworn in as a member of the executive council. He had been for a long time the power behind the throne ; it was only fair to the public and to his opponents that he should assume the responsibility of a policy which was distinctly his own.

For the first time also his name then came before the country connected with that of John A. Macdonald, an alliance which lasted until the death of one of the partners. Their respective beginnings in life did not indicate that they would, one day, work together hand in hand ; for their political creed had placed them face to face as opponents in the House. A man is hardly responsible for peculiar views in the early part of his life ; he inherits the ideas which permeate the ambient air in which his first years are spent ; when he prides himself upon his strong convictions, he is only an unconscious slave of persons who have taught him to think as they themselves thought.

Macdonald first appeared in parliament as an uncompromising Tory of the old MacNab type. He was not far from the Upper Canada Assembly's

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narrow-minded notions in reference to Lower Canada. It was his wont to be then found in the ranks of those most opposed to La Fontaine. He voted against the proposed settlement of the seigniorial tenure when Cartier earnestly voiced the wishes of his people in that matter, and during the debate on the Indemnity Bill, which provided that the government should indemnify the loyal Lower Canadians who had suffered losses through the rebellion, he qualified that simple measure of justice as a reward to treason. When Lord Elgin gave the royal assent to the Indemnity Bill, he was not with the mob that pelted the governor with stones and rotten eggs, sacked La Fontaine's residence, and burned the house of parliament, but he was politically associated with these firebrands, with such men as Moir Ferris, whom afterwards he appointed to important offices. His prejudices were bound to disappear with time as he escaped from early influences, and came in contact with Lower Canadian representative men. His experience was similar to that of so many other of his friends whose intercourse with French Canadians showed them that they were not as black as they had been painted.

Cartier could not afford to renounce any of his ideals. He was on the defensive and directing his effort to gain political equality for his countrymen of Lower Canada. At the time to which we refer, the principles which were to be his guiding star through life had taken a strong hold on his mind,

THE NEW ALLIANCE

and he had no intention of forsaking any of them. How could he? Was he not simply claiming equal justice and equal rights for all in the face of men who were advocating privileges for a class of British subjects, superior in their mind to their neighbours? When, therefore, it was mooted in the House and in political circles that the Upper Canada Tories desired to form an alliance with the Lower Canada Liberals, he boldly told MacNab and Macdonald that if they courted his fellowship they must first alter their views. "If the Upper Canada Conservatives desire to form a coalition with us Liberals, they must give up many of their principles." It was in this firm language that Cartier laid down (June 26th, 1854), in the House, the fundamental condition of an understanding between his friends and the Tories of Upper Canada, and when this alliance materialised with the MacNab-Morin administration (the latter soon to be replaced by Taché) Cartier was in a position to state (Feb. 14th, 1855) at Verchères, in answer to the charge that he was a Tory, because he had formed an alliance with MacNab: "There are no more Tories in the sense formerly attached to this qualification. The old Tories have weakened their principles (*mis de l'eau dans leur vin*) and have given up antiquated ideas which were their own. In the alliance which we have made, it is Sir Allan who has come to the Lower Canada minority. We have not abandoned any of our positions; can a statesman refuse

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support offered to his cause?" It was in those words that he explained the nature of the compromise which formed the conditions of the Liberal-Conservative alliance, when he came forward in Verchères seeking re-election as a cabinet minister.

Cartier was in such a position that he could not remove one plank from his platform, built as it was upon equal rights for all classes, both in the political and religious spheres; minor matters only were open to compromise and concessions. His general policy was, nevertheless, bitterly attacked in Verchères although it was unimpeachable from the national point of view. It seems as though his opponents foresaw in the young minister the man who for nearly twenty years would stand between them and power. In the eyes of *Le Moniteur*, a Liberal paper of the day, *he was the Grand Trunk Railway solicitor*. This was a crime, for the famous company was then subjected to all sorts of slanderous imputations. The same paper denounced him also as the *supporter of monopolies, of the seigneurs, the upholder of well-paid government situations, a breeder of corruption, the enemy of justice, the champion of illegal measures, the apostle of servitude, the partisan of passive obedience, a human conscience vendor, a Tory minister, a jobber*. Such were the epithets too often used in those days against political opponents. If a man's merit is to be measured by the attacks he is subjected to, Cartier indeed was a great man, for he has been assailed as very

THE ANCIENT LAND TENURE

few politicians have been in Canada. But all this vituperation appears to be the unavoidable stock in trade of politics. A French statistician and bibliophilist has jotted down the titles of eight thousand pamphlets written against Cardinal Mazarin, when he was first minister of France, and this with the total absence of newspapers and with slow press work. But the cardinal outlived that storm of ink and paper, like many another eminent statesman.

From the day he entered the cabinet to the day of his death, Cartier's career was a useful and fruitful one for his country. His activity spread itself over every part of national life, imparting to each new blood and strength. The field of his labour might be divided into two parts, one being his native province and the other Canada at large. Public education, the seigniorial tenure, the judiciary, the codification of the laws of Lower Canada were among the subjects which occupied his attention in Quebec. It cannot be claimed that he alone settled the land tenure of the country. It had been before the public and parliament for many years. But the questions of acquired rights, the rival claims of the seigniors and their *censitaires* raised a mountain of obstacles which no one dared touch until Cartier and his friends resolved to grapple with its huge bulk.

It will not be out of place here to outline the main features of the ancient land tenure, which, to many outsiders, is still looked upon as part and parcel of the feudal system planted in

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New France by Louis XIV. During this king's reign, tracts of land were granted to seigneurs under certain conditions. The principal conditions were that the seigneur should, in his turn, make grants of land to settlers, who became proprietors of the concession and could dispose of the same. The price of sale was an annual rent of a *sou* or a *sou* and a half per *arpent*. This was called the *cens et rente*. This system exists to this day in many places, but the owner of any farm can rid himself of it by paying the capital of such rent. The great difference between our land system and the tenure of most European countries lay in this: that the Canadian settler was the proprietor of his farm, and could dispose of it by lease or sale. The feature of the tenure to which people objected was the *droit de lods et ventes*, a tax which the owner of a farm had to pay to the landlord if he sold it, that duty amounting to 9 per cent. of the sale price. The *lods et ventes* interfered with land transfers and led to many abuses; the vendor would sometimes ostensibly undersell his property, which the seigneur could then buy himself if he considered the sale price below the real value of the property. There was also the *banalité*, under which the seigneur was obliged to keep up a grist mill to which the *censitaire* was compelled to bring his grain. Under an act of parliament passed in 1854, a commission was entrusted with the task of amending this old tenure. As a matter of course the seigneurs were indem-

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

nified for their losses. All that remains now of the tenure is the rent of a *sou per arpent*; the *censitaire* can liberate himself by paying the capital of this rent, computed at 6 per cent.

A man of broad mind like Cartier could not overlook the important interests of education. He gave the subject his attention for several years and had the education act amended so as to insure the success of popular as well as of superior education. It was he that placed at the head of the system Mr. Chauveau, a man whose bright intelligence and whose literary attainments fitted him to carry out Cartier's views with success. In this reorganization of public instruction, he gave the Protestants of Lower Canada full control of their schools. At the time of confederation, the English population of Lower Canada had conceived a certain anxiety lest changes should be made in the law affecting their educational establishment when they should come under the parliament at Quebec, where a majority of Catholics would be entrusted with the making of the laws. Of course the British North America Act provided that they should have the same rights as the Catholics of Ontario had under the school system which obtained in that province; but a law had to be made in Quebec to carry out the special clauses of the constitution referring to schools. Cartier pledged himself that this would be done, and relying on his word the Protestants were reassured. After confederation the

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Quebec government, through some misunderstanding with the corporation of Montreal, did not at once carry out the engagement made by Cartier, and loud complaints were heard among Protestants on all sides, both in the press and in parliament. Cartier then pressed the Quebec government to enact the desired law, with a prompt and gratifying result. When he returned from England in 1871, he was presented with addresses by the Protestants of Lower Canada, the object of which was to thank him for having carried out his promises with so much zeal. It is to be remarked here that but few French Canadian ministers have ever enjoyed to the same extent as Cartier the confidence of the English-speaking population of Canada.

In the administration of justice he made a reform which has lost, with time, some of its merit. Up to 1857 legal business was concentrated in the cities, to the great inconvenience of people living in the country, who had to travel great distances to attend the courts. Cartier established fifteen new judicial districts, so as to place law courts within easy reach of the people. It was his intention also to have the judges reside in their districts, so that they might form in different parts of Canada enlightened centres, which would improve the social condition of the inhabitants. Unfortunately most of the judges have not shared his views in the matter, and have made their residence in the cities. To complete this reorganization, he decided that all

ECCLESIASTICAL LEGISLATION

the French laws, scattered in many antiquated books, should be codified after the style of the *Code Napoléon*. In this action he had another object in view beyond mere convenience. He desired to facilitate the study of French laws for the population of the Eastern Townships and those parts of the country to which the French laws had been extended. This reform he carried, as he stated in Sherbrooke, against the opposition of very many lawyers and even judges. It was, indeed, a beneficial reform, and any one conversant with our civil courts cannot to-day understand why any opposition should have been made to Cartier's codification scheme.

Another measure which his skill and energy carried through parliament is the act giving civil status to parishes established by the bishops. According to this act, whenever the Church thinks fit to establish a new parish in any diocese, it receives civil life without having to go before parliament to obtain an act of incorporation. This piece of legislation was of great benefit to the Catholics. It substituted a simple petition to the courts for the former act of parliament. It is strange that no one has ever given Cartier credit for this law which completes the liberties of the Catholic Church in Lower Canada and its independence of the state. Cartier was very proud of the measure, and considered that in having placed it on the statute book he had rendered invaluable service to the

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Church; but he took no trouble to claim credit for it at the time, as such a law might have awakened prejudices. His object was always to do good rather than gain popularity.

Huxley once said of Gladstone: "Here is a man with the greatest intellect in Europe, and yet he debases it by simply following majorities of the crowd." Without stopping to inquire whether this judgment is exaggerated or not, it can be said that such a charge could not be laid against Cartier. Of all Canadians he was the most independent of public opinion. When a plan or a scheme, however risky, politically speaking, it might be, had been fully matured in his mind, he carried it out inflexibly. The judiciary act and the consolidation of French laws were carried against very powerful opposition, as we have just stated. It was his wont not to consult his friends on measures of great importance before they were brought forward for public discussion. Even confederation was resolved upon without the advice of his followers. Being asked one day if he had sought their opinion before forming an alliance with Brown, the arch-enemy of Lower Canada, he made the following astounding confession: "With regard to this matter, I have not sought the advice of my countrymen nor of my political friends. I here confess that in all important acts of my life, of my political career, I have not consulted anyone."

Strange as this conduct may appear, is it not the correct method for responsible ministers to adopt?

HIS INDEPENDENT CHARACTER

Members of parliament, men of conflicting views, many living only with the idea of preparing for the next election, and on that account dreading questions involving great issues easily misunderstood by the people, can only be made to accept average opinions if consulted. It behooves leaders of men to bring them, all at once, face to face with a proposal of high import, and compel them to support it whether it corresponds with their ideas or not. It is not unlikely that Cartier felt the pulse of the country, made inquiries as to its requirements, and after full study made up his mind, well persuaded that he knew better than the rest of the world what reform was needed.

With his self-confidence he thought very little of the party rank and file. When told that he seemed to have a certain fondness for inferior men as his followers in the House: "What does it matter," he replied, "as long as the head is good?" This would indicate that his opinion of his supporters bordered almost on contempt. Cartier lived in an age of restricted suffrage; he derived his strength from the better class of the population that trusted him entirely, but his methods would not suit a democracy and its representatives. Be that as it may, it cannot be gainsaid that the work he performed was great and far-reaching. It bears evidence that he was a man of great powers, and that with constant and hard labour, his achievements were considerable.

CHAPTER V

TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION

POLITICAL troubles such as Canada went through about 1837 and after the union, when the battle for responsible government had to be fought, stand, as a rule, in the way of material progress. Our country was slow to recover from their consequences, and from 1840 to 1854, trade was depressed to a discouraging extent. We were at a standstill while our neighbours, whose condition always affects ours, were rushing forward at rapid strides in all the avenues leading to prosperity. In 1843 trade began to revive under the beneficial legislation of Stanley, whose Canada Corn Act (1843) admitted into England at a nominal duty, not only the wheat grown north of the line 45°, but also flour made out of American wheat. The premium thus offered to our industry caused a large amount of capital to be invested in flour mills, but scarcely had they been completed when Peel's great free trade measure (1846) swept away all the privilege the colony was preparing to enjoy under the previous act, and this brought upon Canada, especially the western section, a crushing blow to rising prosperity. Discontent naturally followed and obtained to such an extent

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that it alarmed Lord Elgin. He wrote to Lord Grey: "I believe that the conviction that they would be better off if they were annexed is almost universal among the commercial classes at present."¹ Another most objectionable piece of legislation, were the English navigation laws which cramped the commerce of Canada by restricting it to British vessels, whilst high duties transferred trade to the United States.

It was this stagnation in every branch of activity on the one side, compared with progress on the other, that fostered the annexationist sentiment which prevailed for a while about 1849, and which such eminent men as J. J. C. Abbott and L. H.

¹ It will be interesting in this connection to read what Lord Elgin wrote to Lord Grey on the state of the country in 1849.

"Peel's bill of 1846 drives the whole of the produce down the New York channels of communication, destroying the revenue which Canada expected to derive from canal duties, and ruining at once mill owners, forwarders, and merchants. . . . We are actually reduced to the disagreeable necessity of paying all public officers, from the governor-general downwards, in debentures, which are not exchangeable at par. What makes it more serious is that all the prosperity of which Canada is thus robbed is transplanted to the other side of the lines, as if to make Canadians feel more bitterly how much kinder England is to the children who desert her, than to those who remain faithful. . . . If England will not make the sacrifices which are absolutely necessary to put the colonists here in as good a position commercially as the citizens of the States—in order to which free navigation and reciprocal trade with the States are indispensable—if not only the organs of the league but those of the government and of the Peel party are always writing as if it were an admitted fact that colonies, and more especially Canada, are a burden, to be endured only because they cannot be got rid of; the end may be nearer at hand than we wot of."

THE TRANSPORTATION PROBLEM

Holton countenanced. They had lost faith in the resources of Canada and its institutions. It seemed to them that the only way to lift the country out of this slough of despond was to join its fortunes with the United States. Not such were Cartier's sentiments; with his buoyancy of spirit and his great foresight, he and his friends perceived the cause of the depression and its remedy; the obstacle to the growth of public wealth and the lever to remove it from the way. Stagnation reigned supreme then for the reasons just mentioned and also for want of rapid means of communication between the back country and the cities and between these and the markets of the world. How could Canada have access to them when shut off altogether from Europe and partly from the United States for eight months of the year? It was only in 1849 that the St. Lawrence and Atlantic Railway (now a section of the Grand Trunk system) gave Montreal an access to the sea through Portland. As far back as 1846, Cartier was in the field advocating the construction of railways, and the deepening of the St. Lawrence channel in connection with a general improvement of our waterways. He worked in advance of his programme of later years which he condensed in these words: *Our policy is a policy of railways.* Henceforward, we shall find him taking a prominent, when not the first part, in all questions of transportation. He was not the man to take a despondent view of the situation. The possibilities

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of Canada in the line of material progress, appeared to his practical mind as they actually were and are—boundless. It was only necessary to create great veins and arteries, to put in motion the rich blood that the country contained and to create prosperity under new conditions of progress. That was the part that railways and improved navigation were called upon to play.

On August 10th, 1846, the citizens of Montreal were assembled to take into consideration the advisability of subsidizing the Montreal and Portland Railroad. Among the speakers of the day was Cartier, whose terse reasoning, and whose mastery of the question won the day in spite of a strong opposition led on by such important men as Messrs. Nelson and Gibb. It is interesting to note to-day the line of arguments used on that occasion. They show how deeply versed he was in political economy, how familiar were the requirements of the country to him. His speech would not have looked antiquated during the great debates of recent years in the Commons on the transportation problem.

In this age of democracy the people have as many courtiers and flatterers as kings of old. It is an out-of-date notion to teach the masses their duties at the same time as their rights. Cartier, despising the art of the comedian, relying alone on the good sense of the public, would not stoop to modern methods to gain acquiescence in any of his plans. It was, therefore, not surprising to find him



Saint James Street Montreal, 1840

THE SITUATION OF MONTREAL

at this Montreal meeting handling the good but slow population of the city without gloves, railing at their inertia, reproving them for their want of ambition, which, to make it more apparent, he contrasted with the "feverish activity, the energy and spirit of enterprise of our neighbours." Some of the arguments used on that occasion might appear childish to-day, but we must not be unmindful of the fact that at the time he spoke some of his hearers were prejudiced as to the great usefulness of railways. He must, therefore, be excused if he told the Montreal audience "that every city that has had the advantage to become a railway terminus has seen the value of property doubled in a very short time, such as Buffalo, Newport and Boston." His arguments are more in harmony with modern notions when he gives Montreal this warning, "that her progress is dependent on her position as the head of navigation for the western trade; that the changes made in the corn laws are placing this trade in jeopardy, and that Montreal will not be able to hold it if she does not secure for herself the best means of transportation from the waters of the west to the ocean through our canals and railways." And on another occasion he added: "Montreal would be blind to her interests and would be the most backward city if she failed to accept the only means to bring back to herself that prosperity which is running away from her. It is her destiny to become the great shipping port of

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the west. Without railways and canals she will let pass this golden opportunity."

In this question of material progress, Canada then offered an immense field to his energy and to the business ability, remarkable in a lawyer, which came to him by atavism, as he once said in Quebec, his ancestors having spent their lives in trade pursuits. The first railway enterprise he became connected with was the Grand Trunk. As long as any part of that great line, with its many ramifications, remained incomplete, his efforts to achieve its success were untiring. His zeal for this national enterprise was so great that it led many to believe that it was not disinterested ; hence the numberless charges hurled against him in that connection. But they could not in any way diminish his activity, and when the Grand Trunk extended only over a few hundred miles, he prided himself in the House of Assembly in 1854, with having prepared the charter of that great highway: "I have been entrusted with the bill which has given life to the Grand Trunk, and I take more pride in that fact than in any other act of my life. Even to-day this railroad is the main cause of our prosperity. The Grand Trunk Railway company is giving work to 1,600 men, and has spent since 1852, £2,500,000."

The building of that road from the Atlantic shores to Chicago was in the general interests of Canada, but Cartier did not overlook the interests of his province, and, using his large influence

HIS RAILWAY POLICY

with the company, he prevailed upon them to push their line along the St. Lawrence from Quebec to Rivière du Loup. His success in the matter reached the importance of a great feat, as the company were averse to the extension of their route in that direction, as no prospect of getting a compensation for the outlay could be held out to them. But Cartier had laid down this principle, that if the government's policy was to subsidize railways with a view of promoting the general interests of Canada, it was only fair that regions contributing their share of such subsidies should also receive rail communication. With the help of Sir E. P. Taché, he carried his point. His useful work in connection with railway enterprises in the St. Lawrence region did not end here. When the question of locating the Intercolonial Railway arose in the Privy Council, the majority of the ministers were inclined to run the line from Rivière du Loup directly to St. John, by the shortest route, whilst Cartier favoured the longer one, following the river shore through Rimouski, Bonaventure and Gaspé. He defended his plan with arguments derived from Major Robinson's report, the imperial engineer, who had made a survey of the country with the object of finding the most favourable route for the interprovincial highway. He had come to the conclusion that for military reasons, the line should run as far as possible from the American frontier. As minister of militia, Cartier took the same view, with the

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double desire of favouring three large constituencies of his province and securing the line of communication most useful for the defence of Canada. It was on this occasion that after a prolonged discussion, ending in a decided opposition to his plan, he left the council with the intimation that he would not return until his ultimatum had been accepted. Achilles-like, he remained eight days under his tent. Major Robinson's route was finally selected. Cartier well knew that in a crisis such as he had provoked there are men disposed to say everything rather than cause the downfall of the administration. It is then to Cartier's firm stand that the population of Rimouski, Bonaventure and Gaspé owe the 300 miles of railway which place them in communication with the civilized world all the year round.

The desire to create a military route after the Robinson plan did not alone actuate Cartier. There was also another powerful incentive to his conduct. The interests of this forlorn country, cut off from all markets during eight months of the year, appealed to his feeling, and he was bound to bring the worthy population of the lower St. Lawrence in contact with Quebec and Montreal. Had not the railway then been built on the route laid down by Major Robinson, there is no telling when their isolation would have come to an end, as that country seemed to offer limited inducement to investments. Cartier's name is therefore entitled to

THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY

the grateful remembrance of this region, to which he has been a public benefactor.

During the session of 1872, it was Cartier's glorious duty to engineer through the Commons the first charter of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The construction of this route was one of the terms of the union of British Columbia with Canada under the act of the previous session, which had also been presented by Cartier. After a spirited debate of several days, the Canadian Pacific Railway bill went through its different stages, and when the speaker proclaimed that it was finally passed, Cartier sprang to his feet, shouting amidst the cheers of the House: "*All aboard for the west!*" His enthusiasm was quite natural. The Canadian Pacific Railway charter securing the building of the western route was the crowning work of confederation; without it the union of the British provinces from ocean to ocean would not be a real and accomplished fact. The great territories and British Columbia were too distant from the heart of the country to receive any impulse from it. The Canadian Pacific Railway was necessary to bring about both the moral and material union so desirable. It was not Cartier's lot to go west, for his days were then numbered. All that now lay in store for him in connection with this great enterprise was endless troubles, ending in a terrible political catastrophe, whose final act he was not to behold.

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Under the terms of the charter of 1871, the terminus of the transcontinental line was fixed at the south end of Lake Nipissing. It might be asked now why such a strange selection had been made. Election tactics sometimes compel public men to curious performances. The terminus was fixed at that out-of-the-way point because both Montreal and Toronto claimed it. Cartier explained to his friends, who urged upon him, in 1871, during the debate on the Canadian Pacific Railway bill, in view of his coming electoral contest of 1872, to declare that Montreal would receive the western trade over the proposed line: "We have been obliged to place the terminus far from your city and also from Toronto for political reasons, on account of the ambition of Toronto and Montreal. Now let both rivals build roads to Nipissing to try and get their share of the traffic. Of course you are bound to win in the race; traffic must come to the port nearest the European markets. It is of no use to attempt to place obstacles in the way of the natural flow of trade. But if I were to make the promise you consider necessary to ensure my re-election, I would injure Sir John's prospects in Ontario." The refusal of this pledge was used to full advantage in Montreal, and did considerable harm to Cartier in 1872. To place such facts before the public to-day is not to command esteem for the degree of enlightenment possessed by the public opinion of those earlier days.

THE PACIFIC SCANDAL

Two competing companies had made bids to construct the road, the Allan company of Montreal and the Macpherson syndicate of Toronto, and they caused considerable worry to the government of the day. Efforts were made to merge the two organizations, but without success. Finally the government pronounced in favour of the Allan company. Then followed the darkest page in the history of Cartier, and one which must have saddened his last days. Sir Hugh Allan had been called upon by the government to subscribe large sums of money for the election of 1872. This leaked out through the indiscreet communications of Sir Hugh Allan to certain Americans, who gave the information to a member of the opposition. At the session of 1873, Lucius Seth Huntington rose in his place in the House, and on the responsibility of his seat in parliament undertook to prove that the Canadian Pacific Railway charter had been sold to Sir Hugh Allan, the consideration being a large electoral subscription. The charge was first referred to a committee of the House, then to a royal commission, who reported the evidence taken before them at a special session of parliament in October, 1873. Sir John Macdonald, who had been sustained at the winter session of 1872 by a majority of thirty-five votes, felt that during recess he had lost his control of the majority by reason of the damaging nature of the evidence produced, and resigned in anticipation of an adverse verdict of the House.

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To condone such an offence against political morality as the acceptance of an electoral subscription to be used to carry a majority of constituencies was out of the question, and the House of Commons had no other honourable course open but to withdraw its confidence from the government. It is generally accepted that in all countries where government by party obtains, it is hard to avoid political methods which appeal to the selfish interests of men. As Earl Grey says: "A tendency to corruption, in that sense of the word, is the common evil of all free government." It is an offence difficult to bring to light, but when discovered it must be dealt with severely. As a rule, public opinion in Canada has shown itself disposed to take an indulgent view of contributions to election funds. And as an instance, five years after the Allan subscription, the Canadian electorate returned to power the men answerable for what was called the Pacific scandal.

CHAPTER VI

CONFEDERATION OF THE BRITISH PROVINCES

CONSIDERABLE as they had been, the other labours with which Cartier had been connected could not be compared in importance with the part he played in the building up of confederation. We find him here in an altogether new field, where the whole future of his country is at stake. To dispose of or to change the political status of a country is no mean enterprise, involving as it does such grave responsibilities. In breaking up the old union of 1841, to form a new compact, was not the French Canadian leader placing in jeopardy the privileges and rights conquered by his people during the preceding fifty years? Was he not giving up well-known and well-defended positions for unknown and uncertain ones? Such were the questions asked on all sides, when Lower Canada was made aware that for the fourth time since 1760, its constitution was to undergo a change. If the greater number of Canadian delegates who had been entrusted with the task of framing a new charter under which all the British provinces of North America would hereafter live, went into the Quebec conference with a light heart, it would not be so with Cartier. To the former, confederation involved no new

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risks ; it was only similar institutions in a wider sphere, whilst with Cartier, the question arose how the peculiar institutions of his compatriots should be secured in the proposed union. What would become of their laws and their system of education? It was proposed, it is true, to hedge their liberties with all possible guarantees, but had not experience demonstrated that constitutions borrow a great part of their value from the men entrusted with their operation?

In spite of the great responsibilities which were looming on the track of the proposed union, it was Cartier who first of all made it a live issue. It is true that as far back as 1836 such a scheme had been mooted by a few public men, but it had never, until 1858, been brought before the people of the country as a question upon which action could be taken. In that year, when premier of Canada, Cartier had placed the following announcement in the speech from the throne :

“I propose in the course of the recess to communicate with Her Majesty’s government and with the governments of the sister colonies on another matter of very great importance. I am desirous of inviting them to discuss with us the principles upon which a bond of a federal character, uniting the provinces of North America, may perhaps hereafter be practicable.”

In the summer following this session, Cartier, Galt and Rose went to England with a view

LEGISLATIVE OR FEDERAL UNION?

of obtaining the concurrence of the British government in the union scheme and their authority to consult the maritime provinces. The scheme, however, fell through because the public men of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick thought that the people of those provinces had not had time to consider the question.

In 1862, things in Canada were going from bad to worse and a dead-lock was a possibility of the near future. It was then that the scheme of confederation was revived. At the very outset of the negotiations, Cartier, bearing in mind his task with its full responsibilities, laid down this as the *sine qua non* of his acquiescence, that confederation should be established on the federal principle. His colleagues would have preferred a legislative union as a more simple and less expensive form of government.

“I have again and again stated in the House,” said John A. Macdonald, on introducing the resolutions adopted at the Quebec conference, “that if practicable, I thought a legislative union would be preferable but on looking at the subject in the conference and discussing the matter as we did we found that such a system was impracticable. In the first place, it would not meet with the assent of the people of Lower Canada . . . there was as great a disinclination on the part of the Maritime Provinces to lose their individuality as separate political organizations.” But there is no

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doubt that in the case of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the objections were not insuperable, being matters of sentiment, while in Quebec conscience and national feeling were concerned. Speaking on this point, Cartier corroborated Macdonald's statement: "I know that many members in this House and a large number of persons in Upper Canada and in the Maritime Provinces, think that a legislative union would have suited the country better. My opinion is that one government only could not take charge in a useful manner of private and local interests of the different parts of the country." This view is certainly correct, although the federal form of government is the most difficult to work out, its success depending chiefly upon the moderation, common sense and intelligence of the people. When these requirements were put to the test in after years, they were sometimes found wanting. It can thus be said, in view of the above statements, that to Cartier we owe the form of our present government. In forcing his conviction in this matter on his colleagues he was impelled by a strong sense that the federal system alone could secure to Lower Canada its peculiar institutions, and also by the stern fact that his influence could not bring his countrymen to accept legislative union, which had proved a failure in the case of Lower and Upper Canada.

But was not the federal system a close imitation of the constitution of the United States which

A CONTRAST

Cartier had been wont to depict as so far inferior to the British charter? Cartier and Macdonald did their very best to wipe out that impression which was spreading during the progress of the discussion of the proposed British North America Bill, but they made artful explanations without giving satisfactory proof of their contention. Cartier held that the two instruments were different in this: that under the constitution of the United States the authority came from the people, after the formula *e pluribus unum*, and the different states gave power to the central government, but with us, life was derived from the crown which lent activity to the central government and also delegated it to the provincial administrations, the authority in this case being derived from one common spring of honour and force—*ab uno plures*. Here we are in the midst of fictions and the argument does not stand the test of a very close examination. It is a distinction with no real difference. Thrusting sophistries aside, we have in Canada and in the United States authority derived from the people. It is they who framed the constitution and who gave it life; in Canada it remained for the crown to set the machine in motion. But even this power has hardly a real existence, so democratic have our institutions become.

According to Macdonald, it was the aim of the fathers of the constitution, to form a strong central government. "In framing the constitution, care had

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been taken to avoid the mistake and weakness of the United States system, the primary error of which was the reservation to the different states of all the powers not delegated to the general government. We must reverse the process by establishing a strong central government, to which shall belong all powers not specially conferred on the provinces." Time and events have made clear that the authors of the constitution have failed to carry out their intention. No one will gainsay the assertion that the American federal power emerged from the war of secession, having crushed state pretensions, much stronger than the Canadian federal government could ever expect to be, especially after having failed in a contest with the weakest province of the Dominion, over the Manitoba school difficulty.

It is curious to note here how the two foremost authors of confederation unconsciously followed the natural tendency of their minds, perhaps under the pressure of diverging or conflicting interests. Cartier, never unmindful of the great responsibilities which the peculiar situation of his countrymen made him assume, exalted the rights of the provincial administrations as being of paramount importance. The autonomy of local government involved within its precincts all that was held dear by his countrymen.

When the different states which had separated from England were called upon to give up a certain

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share of their autonomy to invest a central government with great powers, a conflict of views arose amongst their public men on that point. Some favoured a large concentration of authority whilst others desired to retain as much independence as possible in the state organizations. The former were misnamed federalists and their opponents anti-federalists, or republicans. Macdonald's notions were not unlike those of Hamilton, Jay and Madison, the friends of centralization, whilst Cartier was of President Jefferson's cast of mind, who, on assuming office, announced as his policy "the support of the states' governments in all their rights as the most competent administrations for our domestic concerns."

Has not the operation of our institutions during the last thirty years shown that whenever a difficulty about federal and provincial rights occurred between the Dominion and the local governments, the latter has carried the day in spite of the central power, and almost in defiance of its order? Take for instance the Ontario Rivers and Streams Act, which the Dominion disallowed and which the Ontario legislature re-enacted. The small province of Manitoba took the same stand in the matter of her railway legislation. It is within the recollection of everyone that the Dominion cabinet, although persuaded that the Manitoba School Act of 1871 was *ultra vires*, did not dare to veto that measure for the obvious reason that Dominion

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interference would not have been accepted, and that if the act had been disallowed it would have been placed again by the Manitoba legislature upon the statute book. Another cause of recalcitrant provincialism occurred when the Dominion government issued their remedial order to Manitoba, which was so ostentatiously disobeyed. All this goes to prove that the strong central government which Macdonald intended to establish at Ottawa very often stands powerless in the face of even the smallest province, and it also shows one of the weak points of all federation: the want of coercive power.

Confederation did not give all that was expected and that was promised for it. It is not the privilege of great men to foresee all the consequences of their best laid plans; even genius is often found deficient in foresight. But, taken altogether, it has been a great success, and, as far as the province of Quebec is concerned, a decided improvement on the régime which it superseded. This latter was a legislative union under which the religious and the racial interests were secured only by equality of representation between the two provinces, and that safeguard would have been removed if party lines had given way to national antagonism. As population increased more rapidly in the western province than in the eastern, equality of representation was doomed to disappear in time, for representation by population, just in itself, was bound to prevail, carrying with it the domina-

THE SUCCESS OF CONFEDERATION

tion of Upper Canada over Lower Canada, which would have placed the French Canadians at the tender mercies of a hostile majority. The great benefit of the federal union resided in this, that it constituted the province of Quebec like an impregnable fortress in the midst of the other provinces. There were safely ensconced all that the French Canadians held dear. To the federal government were abandoned the material interests of the country which could not be disassociated and over which Quebec could still exert its share of control through representatives at Ottawa. It cannot be denied that under confederation the advance of Canada in all branches of trade and in public wealth has gone beyond all expectations. It can stand comparison with the most prosperous country of the world, the United States. It is sufficient to prove this that the volume of our trade had increased from seventy-three millions in 1868 to nearly three hundred millions in 1891. It would be fortunate indeed were there reason to believe that similar progress, or some approach to it, had taken place in the intellectual condition of our people.

The battle over the confederation scheme in Lower Canada was fierce and long. Cartier had to deal with clever and strong opponents, who, however, in condemning confederation, did not show how otherwise the country could have been rescued from its long-standing troubles and the dead-

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lock which was near at hand between Lower and Upper Canada, with antagonism always on the increase. A sort of zollverein was suggested, but in such a vague and unprecise form that nobody could see what remedy it would have brought to cure existing evils. Some critics hinted that it was Cartier's duty to revert to the state of things which existed before the union of 1840, forgetting that the English of Lower Canada could never have accepted a French parliament and isolation from the other provinces. He was also blamed for taking a part at all in the federal scheme. This would have been a suicidal policy, for any changes evolved at the time without the concurrence of the French element would have been more or less against their interests. Lower Canada was placed between confederation and annexation to the United States. The French Canadians were, however, strongly opposed to the alternative, as any union with the Americans portended their absorption through the irresistible power of fusion dominant in the United States. It must be remembered that Cartier and his friends had not a free hand in this matter, that the opinions of English-speaking Canadians had to be taken into account, and that any schemes, to be accepted, must partake of the character of a compromise between the different sections of the country. After confederation, when the question had been finally decided by the people, the opponents of Cartier loyally laid down their arms and did their

THE NEW OPPOSITION

best to make the new constitution a success. As it was their privilege and duty, they formed themselves into an opposition party in order to criticize the measures and policy of the government, with the lawful ambition to take their place at the helm. It is a happy country where public men confine their criticism to the administration of affairs, without assailing the constitution.

CHAPTER VII

CONFLICT AND VICTORIES

THE year 1867 saw Cartier at the climax of his glory and power. He was one of the delegation sent to London to watch the progress of the British North America Act through parliament. During his sojourn in the metropolis he was lionized, and had the honour of being the Queen's guest. People fond of contrasts could not help noticing the presence at Windsor Castle of the ex-rebel of 1837, now a stalwart supporter of British institutions. The contrast was not as glaring as some people would have it; the insurgent youth had been transformed into a loyal subject by the liberal policy of the government. When he returned to Canada in the summer to take his part in setting the new constitution in motion, he had practically no opposition in the electoral contest which followed the union proclamation. Both the local and federal elections returned large ministerial majorities. John A. Macdonald was called to form the first administration under the new régime as having the largest number of supporters. It was a reversal of the former state of things; from 1858 to 1862 Cartier was the premier of Canada. After the defeat of the Macdonald-Dorion administration in 1864, Cartier

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was sent for, but he advised Lord Monck to entrust Sir E. P. Taché with the duty of forming a cabinet. He feared that his presence at the head of the government would injure the prospects of his friends in Upper Canada, as he had taken such an uncompromising stand against George Brown's aggressiveness. In spite of the change he was the real premier of the short-lived administration of 1864. In the Province of Quebec Mr. Chauveau was selected as premier; no better choice could have been made. Of sterling honour, and of very moderate views in politics, to which he had been a stranger since 1859, he was well fitted to open the new era which was to be at first one of peace and harmony.

Lower Canada acclaimed Cartier as a conqueror, and public demonstrations were organized in his honour in all leading cities and towns. In 1869 the government entrusted him and Hon. William McDougall with the mission of negotiating the purchase from the Hudson's Bay Company of their land in the North-West Territories. The negotiations were protracted on account of the exorbitant price placed on their rights by the possessors of those vast regions, who asked for them as much as \$5,000,000. Finally, under great pressure at the hands of the colonial secretary, Lord Grey, they accepted £300,000. At a dinner given to our delegates, Mr. Gladstone, then prime minister, eulogized the Canadian statesmen. It was on this occasion that

THE FIRST RIEL REBELLION

Cartier used the expression for which he was so often taken to task by some of his opponents: "We French Canadians are British subjects like the others, but British subjects speaking French." These words, it seems, represent correctly the position of the French Canadians, and when other public men of the same nationality have pledged their loyalty to the British crown, have they not proclaimed themselves British subjects? Cartier's sentence is apt and to the point.

In the midst of these successes a terrible storm burst upon Canada. While the government was preparing to establish authority in the North-West, and before the annexation of these regions became a *fait accompli*, a party of engineers under Colonel Dennis had been sent to Fort Garry, and without a word of warning, and also without any leave from the Hudson's Bay Company, began to make surveys on the lands occupied by the half-breeds. These naturally took offence at what seemed to them high-handed proceedings. At first discontent remained inactive, then it flamed into open rebellion when Hon. Wm. McDougall attempted to enter the newly acquired territory as lieutenant-governor of the North-West. It would be unnecessary to dilate on what followed: Riel's revolt, the establishment of a provisional government, the murder of Scott, General Wolseley's expedition, and Bishop Taché's mission of peace to his people, who, at his earnest request, laid down their arms.

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All these facts are well known but it will not be out of place to recall here the timely warning which was given by Bishop Taché of the trouble that was brewing, and which, if it had been heeded, would have spared the country a vast expenditure of money and the turmoil of a petty revolution. In 1869, the venerable prelate, a personal friend of Cartier, had come to Ottawa to warn the government that Colonel Dennis's action would cause mischief, and that the half-breeds were in a great state of agitation. The secretary of state refused to hear him. Cartier received the warning with indifference, and finally told him that he knew all that was going on, and that the agitation was not serious. The bishop insisted, and pointed to the signs of a coming storm, but to no avail. He then set out on his voyage to Rome, which he had hardly reached when a cablegram from the Canadian government begged him to return at once to Canada to appease the trouble. It was Cartier's boast that he was always better informed than everyone else, but in this instance he and his colleagues were singularly at fault.

Thanks to Bishop Taché's interference, the insurgent half-breeds laid down their arms and many of them went forward to welcome General Wolseley at the Lake of the Woods. Upon his return to England, the commander of the North-West expedition, striking the attitude of a conqueror, related his experience in Canada in *Blackwood's Magazine*,

SEPARATE SCHOOL LEGISLATION

abusing the minister of militia, whom he likened to Molière's *Bourgeois gentilhomme*, and belittling the Canadian volunteers and *voyageurs*, whose services he was, a few years after, anxious to secure for his Khartoum expedition.

During the session of 1871, the task of presenting the bill creating the Province of Manitoba devolved upon Cartier. He conducted the debates on this subject with his usual skill, and with mastery of all the details of the measure, prefacing his speech on the second reading of the bill with this remark: "The name of the new province will be Manitoba, a very euphonious word meaning: *The God that speaks*. Well, let Canada's latest addition always speak to the inhabitants of the North-West the language of reason, truth and justice." He did not live long enough to see how his good wishes were realized. Cartier, with his impulsive and generous nature and his extreme liberal ideas, presumed too greatly on the large-mindedness of others. Still in order to spare to Manitoba the troubles which were then agitating New Brunswick over a school difficulty, he went the length of surrounding the rights of the Catholics of Manitoba with all kinds of safeguards, to protect them against all possible encroachments. In New Brunswick, there was no law before confederation conferring upon Roman Catholics any rights to the separate schools which existed there only on sufferance. Therefore, the British North America Act,

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which guaranteed the educational rights which minorities enjoyed before the passage of that act, could not be appealed to. In order to avoid any difficulty in Manitoba, Cartier inserted a clause which, to his mind would protect the cause of the minority against all possible attacks. He caused it to be enacted that all schools existing by law or practice previous to the union of Manitoba with Canada, would have the right to exist conjointly with other schools to be established hereafter, to share equally for their support in the distribution of public monies. We now know what a feeble rampart this was ; it was blown down at the first word of a government opposed to separate schools, and the decision of these adverse legislators was supported by all the Manitoba courts whose judgment was, in turn, reversed by the unanimous decision of the Supreme Court. The findings of judges often look like the *obiter dicta* of laymen when laws are so diversely interpreted. The fate of this Manitoba law, so cleverly designed in Cartier's mind to defeat any attempt to deprive the Catholics of their schools, recalls O'Connell's opinion that he could drive a coach and four through any act of parliament. On the other hand, in view of this particular clause of the Manitoba Act, one is tempted to ponder this problem, whether it is better to have a defective constitution worked by liberal minded men or a perfect constitution applied by men wanting that spirit.

NEW BRUNSWICK SCHOOLS

To sum up the whole matter it may be said that, in general, laws have but little force when they are met adversely by an overwhelming public opinion, and in this special instance, Cartier's measure, loyally conceived and carried out in the interest of contemporary Roman Catholics and their posterity to the furthest generation, was called upon to weather a storm of popular prejudice which it was powerless to withstand. It foundered, but the wreck remains to bear witness that Cartier and his colleagues were just in their day, and endeavoured to perpetuate justice.

The matter, however, that gave most concern to Cartier was the New Brunswick school embroglio. When, in 1871, the news spread that the Catholics of that province had been deprived of their system of separate schools which had existed up to that time, and previous to confederation, the press of Quebec at once took sides with the Catholics of New Brunswick. Without stopping to inquire what was the true legal position, the editors cried out that the minority was suffering persecution. Thus influenced, public opinion very soon followed in the same track and the government was at once importuned to interfere and protect the down-trodden minority. When parliament met in the winter of 1872, Messrs. Costigan, Anglin, and Renaud, brought up the grievance of their New Brunswick friends and protested against the proposed change which denied to the Catholics any share of the

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educational fund so long as their schools remained sectional. They requested the disallowance of the obnoxious law; but the government resisted that request on the ground that educational legislation was vested solely in the provincial legislature; that although sympathy went out towards the aggrieved citizens of that province, it was out of the question to advise the governor-general to veto the act. It was set forth by Sir John A. Macdonald, to make the situation clear, that when the confederation scheme was under discussion, an attempt had been made to place education under federal control, which attempt the delegates from Quebec had entirely objected to, going so far as to declare that they could not accept any scheme of union in which education would pass from provincial control. It was, however, decided that, in order to protect existing rights in Ontario and Quebec, an appeal should lie to the central government if these rights were interfered with by their respective local legislatures. The government was sustained in this position, and Cartier, feeling the great responsibility attached to his conduct in this matter, made a decided effort to convince his co-religionists how wrong they were in pressing the government to interfere. The members were of one mind with him, but outside of parliament the debate was waged between sentimental reasons and legal arguments and, with the masses, the latter seldom gain a victory. Cartier, with his usual vim and high

EDUCATIONAL AGITATION

spirit, when he was seeking Lower Canada's concurrence, led the public to expect from confederation more than it could give as a protection to minorities. Had he not stated in the House at Quebec that any attempt upon the rights of the minorities would be visited by the interference of the federal power? "Is it possible to imagine that the general government or that the local administration would be guilty of arbitrary acts? What would be the consequence, supposing the latter should do any unjust action? Measures of this sort would certainly be repudiated by the majority of the people. It is not probable, therefore, that a minority will ever be deprived of its rights. Under this system of federation which places in the hands of the central government all matters of general interest, and to whom question of races will be indifferent, religious or national rights will not be ignored."

When confronted with the stern fact of the New Brunswick grievance, he took another stand, the only one justifiable in law, but not expected by his fellow-religionists of Quebec. After having demonstrated in the clearest manner possible that disallowance was not in this case within the province of the central power, he appealed to the egotism and self-interest of the French Canadians, who, of all the peoples united in confederation, should be the last to ask for federal interference in local affairs. It was altogether contrary to the mainten-

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ance of their autonomy to create a precedent which might be used against them later on. It was simply setting before the Protestant minority of Quebec an example which they might imitate if any measure passed by the Quebec legislature caused discontent among them. Certainly all this was sound advice, and went far to strengthen the provincial rights, but at the time it did not convince very many. Of course his sympathies, like those of Sir John Macdonald, went openly with the aggrieved, but he gave them to understand that they had in their own hands the means of obtaining redress. They were an important minority, and if, with united efforts, they persisted in claiming their rights, these would, before long, be conceded to them. The government was sustained in this course, and Cartier's suggestion that the opinion of the law officers of the crown in England be obtained on the contention of the Catholics was accepted. With this ended Cartier's parliamentary connection with the matter, but the agitation waxed terribly strong against him in Quebec. Scarcely anything else was discussed in the electoral campaign of 1872; great questions like the tariff, protection to native industries, the Canadian Pacific Railway—questions of vast import to the advancement of the country—were scarcely mentioned. Matters of sentiment always take the lead in the Province of Quebec, and become the all-absorbing topics of the day.

Let us give the sequel of that unfortunate

THE COSTIGAN MOTION

incident, in order to draw from it a valuable moral lesson. It was again brought up at the session of 1873, when Mr. Costigan, not being satisfied with the decision adverse to his views given by the law officers of the crown in England, again asked for the disallowance of the obnoxious legislation. He carried his point against the power of the government. All the Catholic members of Quebec save four, two of whom were ministers, voted for the Costigan motion; many did so reluctantly, simply obeying the dictates of public opinion and of the clergy, but thinking probably in their own minds that they were pursuing a dangerous course. When the Liberals came into power another effort was made to obtain redress of the long standing grievance; but the new administration was averse to anything which would look like high-handed proceedings. At the session of 1874, Mr. Costigan forced it again upon the attention of the Commons, with the help of the Quebec Conservatives, who, having suffered so much at the hands of their opponents from the agitation raised by this controversy, were bound now to use it against them to the fullest extent. The object of the new Costigan motion was to have the constitution amended so as to secure to his co-religionists the privilege they claimed, and a violent debate ensued. Judge of the astonishment of the Quebec members, when the rumour became current that the bishop of New Brunswick had made a compromise with the local government by

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which the Catholic children could receive, under certain conditions, religious instruction in the public schools. What offended the supporters of the Costigan motion was that the bishop allowed them to continue this long standing fight after he had brought the difficulty to an end, without giving them even a word of warning, and without consulting them, after all the trouble they had taken to obtain redress for his flock. The fact of the matter is that for nearly five years, all the energies of Quebec had gravitated around this New Brunswick local affair, to the exclusion of all other interests. It was inferred from this want of consideration that this active and sympathetic support was little appreciated when the need for it had passed. The Quebec friends of the New Brunswick Catholics seemed then to have played a rather Quixotic part in this battle for redress of other people's grievances. They received an unmerited lesson, but one which was lost upon them. They were again found on several occasions to be more Catholic than the Pope and more aggrieved than the real sufferer of the wrong.

CHAPTER VIII

CARTIER AND THE CHURCH

WHILST Cartier was at the summit of his very successful career, during the period extending from 1867 to 1872, influences were at work undermining his popularity and preparing his downfall. It is a sad truth that most statesmen lose their hold on the people when they have the helm in hand ; the act of governing diminishes popularity even when public affairs are properly conducted. For some reason or other, during these years, Cartier was not in touch with his friends as he used to be. His presence in the local House at Quebec during the first parliament of that province, and his many absorbing public duties at Ottawa left him very little time to devote to those attentions which a leader of men must bestow on his followers in order to keep his popularity. His party was very strong, and the very strength of a political association may become a danger ; when there is no enemy to fight outside the camp the army of the faithful fight within the camp. In this case the danger sprang from among the most advanced Conservatives of his following, those whom Protestants called Ultramontanes, and loyal Conservatives nicknamed *Castors*.

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The first cause of the split in the ranks of Cartier's followers dates back to ante-confederation days, and arose in this way. The then Bishop of Montreal, Mgr. Bourget, a prelate renowned for his great virtues, but absolute and obstinate, and not unlike Cartier in temperament, decided one day to divide into several parishes the only existing Montreal parish of Notre Dame, administered by *les Messieurs du Séminaire de St. Sulpice*. The Seminary refused to comply with the order, contending that from the early days of the colony under French régime, they had had charge of this parish, having built all the churches of the city, and that, according to the civil and religious law they could not be disturbed. The bishop pointed out the great inconvenience resulting from the concentration of all religious affairs in the one church of Notre Dame, such as christenings, marriages and services for the dead. Endless wranglings took place between the contending parties at Rome and before the civil courts, and it was an unfortunate incident that placed the Seminary's case in the hands of Cartier's law partners. He took no part in the discussion before the courts, but his name appeared with those of the other members of his firm, to whom public duties made him almost a stranger. It was supposed that his leanings were towards the Sulpicians with whom he had always been on terms of amity since his school days. From this cause a certain coldness arose between him and the head of the church in

LOSS OF POPULARITY

Montreal, so that when confederation was proclaimed, all the bishops of the province, save Mgr. Bourget, wrote pastoral letters recommending to their flocks the acceptance of the new order of things.

After the Union, events occurred which supplied those Conservatives who did not approve of Cartier's attitude towards the head of the church in Montreal, with an opportunity of showing their dissatisfaction. A newspaper, *Le Nouveau Monde*, edited by Canon Lamarche, one of Mgr. Bourget's friends, was started for that purpose, and the government's actions in New Brunswick and Manitoba were severely animadverted upon.

The *Civil Code*, one of Cartier's titles to glory, was held up to severe criticism as containing legislation restraining the liberty of the church in matters of education, marriage and establishment of parishes. This Code reeking, according to *Le Nouveau Monde*, with what remained in Canada of gallicanism, was at last referred to Rome. The judgment came, after strict examination, that it was the most carefully prepared set of laws existing in any country, and that a few slight amendments would place it above reproach, and that the condemnation passed upon it in Quebec, in such unmeasured language, was unjustifiable.

Not satisfied with the damaging attacks directed against Cartier by the *Nouveau Monde*, the ultras organized a faction within the Conservative ranks

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under the name of *Le Parti Catholique*, the avowed object of which was to place members of parliament under the dictates of the church in all matters political and religious. The leaders of *Le Parti Catholique* requested the Catholics to vote at the coming elections of 1872, for those candidates only who would subscribe "entire and full acceptance of the Catholic and Roman doctrines in religion, politics and social economy."

It is useless to point out the dangerous character of such an organization in a mixed community like ours, and also its lack of a *raison d'être*, for never had the Catholic members, both Liberal and Conservative, been more in harmony with the Church than in those days. On the New Brunswick school question, when the point arose whether the British North America Act should not be amended so as to remove the grievance complained of by the Catholics, all the Conservative members, save two, voted in the affirmative against their leader. The hostility of the *Nouveau Monde*, disguised at first and then open, did more to destroy Cartier's prestige and influence than the opposition of the Liberal party.

The *Programme Catholique*, the work of some journalists and of a few priests, launched without the consent of the upper clergy, drew upon itself the disapproval of the head of the church in Canada. The archbishop of Quebec, Mgr. Taschereau, ordered his priests to warn their flocks against

HOSTILE INFLUENCES

this ill-timed and ill-considered appeal to their sentiments. The *Parti Catholique*, which had given another illustration of the fact that some people can be more Catholic than the Pope, could hardly use its programme after this condemnation, but the spirit that dictated it was more alive than ever and kept up the warfare against Cartier with its accustomed bitterness. On the other hand, the regular and natural opponents of the government had greatly altered their platform; it was no more the aggressive and radical organization of old. Respectful of all the tenets of the church, they had eschewed all principles that could give offence to the clergy. Nay, in the New Brunswick affair, their conduct in the House of Commons constituted a series of pledges to the church; it must be, however, remarked that this submission harmonized well with their general opposition tactics. In 1872, the *Parti National* was organized to show that the Liberal party had broken off entirely with radicalism. Their programme, as was shown above, told the country that they intended in future to fight the Conservatives on purely political grounds. With great skill they were turning to their advantage Cartier's false position towards the head of the church in Montreal.

The Duc de Broglie was once conversing with Louis Philippe on the topic of the relations between the civil power and the church. "Trust to my experience, sire," said the statesman, "never meddle

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in religious affairs, never quarrel with the church. In troubles of this kind, the civil power is sure to get the applause of all the good-for-nothing fellows in the country and to array against itself all the good souls and all right-thinking men." "Yes," replied the king, "it is like placing one's finger between the tree and the bark; it is not only pinched, but it remains there." The lesson conveyed above cannot be wholly applied to Cartier, for the quarrel was not directly with him, but still he should have avoided even the appearance of taking sides with any of the contending parties. Finally the bishop of Montreal gained his point to the advantage of the public. It was a matter of surprise to see Cartier, the autocrat, the upholder of authority, standing with the opposition to the bishop's order and giving it a sort of moral support.

At last, the consequence of this want of his usual foresight, or as some would call it, his great moral courage, recoiled on him with a terrible shock. He was badly beaten in Montreal East to the general surprise. His defeat was a crushing one, his opponent, Mr. Jetté, heading the polls by a majority of over 1,200 in a constituency of 7,000 voters. This unexpected accident aroused general sympathy even among Liberal papers who expressed the desire that another seat should be found for him. Even Mgr. Bourget and the Superior of the Seminary, called on him to express their regret at the result of the election. Similar marks of esteem were shown by

A CRUSHING DEFEAT

the bishops of Ottawa, St. Hyacinthe and Quebec. The unfortunate leader faced his overthrow with courage and seemed undaunted—at least in the public utterances on his defeat. But at heart, he must have been galled by it. To intimate friends he expressed his disappointment and complained bitterly of the attitude of some members of the clergy, who, he said, had forgotten all he had done for the liberty of the church in his province and for his country.

Cartier was then a very sick man, suffering from Bright's disease in an advanced stage. The writer, who accompanied him on the platform on nomination day, in Montreal, saw him unable to stand on his feet during the proceedings. When he rose to speak, his voice had agonizing tones. His very poor health, which must have had a depressing effect even on a man of such high spirit, his defeat, and the visible decline of his influence in Quebec, must have cast a gloom on his mind. Nothing is so entrancing and so fascinating as public life to the young. To raise one's self to the first rank by the sole force of talent; to rule one's country and achieve great things! It is a dream worthy of the highest. Ambition then spreads a thick veil, hiding from sight the deceptions and disillusion with which it often crushes its votaries. The worst feature of politics appears, not when a statesman has to face his natural enemies, but when he is betrayed by his friends. It is a more difficult task

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to overcome the disgust engendered by unfaithfulness than to brave danger, especially when the all-conquering spirit of youth has vanished and when age has appeared, age without buoyancy, with but a backward vision upon past achievements and no hopeful outlook for great deeds to be done in the future.

CHAPTER IX

CARTIER AND THE MILITIA

DURING the American civil war, the intercourse between Great Britain and the United States was far from friendly, and at the time of the imbroglio called the "Trent affair" the situation became so ominous that it threatened war. Canada was hardly in a position to coöperate effectually with Great Britain if hostilities had broken out. It was felt then that a reorganization of the Canadian militia was an urgent necessity, and the government, with the help of a British officer, Colonel Lysons, prepared a Militia Bill which was presented to parliament at the session of 1862 by John A. Macdonald. The measure was defeated on its second reading, and Cartier, then premier, tendered his resignation. On that vote he had been left in a minority for the first time in his province, whilst his colleague, also for the first time, saw a majority of the western members standing at his side.

After confederation it was again his duty, as minister of militia, to prepare another reorganization of the defence of the country. His long experience in that part of the service, together with his strong sense of loyalty, fitted him well for the

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task, and when the measure came before the House in 1868, it met with hardly any opposition. It is still the law of the land. Cauchon, of the *Journal de Québec*, who was never well disposed towards Cartier, praised him on his success. "The minister of militia," said he, "has succeeded where many expected to see him fall. He has nobly retrieved his fortune, and had his revenge for his defeat of 1862." *La Minerve* added: "All those present at the sitting of the House during which Mr. Cartier expounded his militia scheme are unanimous in saying that no other speech of his had ever carried more weight and authority. Nothing less could have been expected from the minister who is considered as master of the situation, thanks to the influence derived from his popularity in Lower Canada, and to the confidence which his integrity and honesty as a statesman give him in the other provinces."

The labour and careful study bestowed on the Militia Bill were inspired by Cartier's sense of duty to the country and strong attachment to British connection. This sentiment was the mainspring of his action where it affected the relations of Great Britain and Canada. It was in consequence of this state of mind that in 1868 and 1869 his feelings received a severe shock when a certain number of public men in England expressed the opinion that she should part with her colonies. The drift of the home government policy seemed then to set in

ENGLAND'S ANTI-COLONIAL FEELING

that direction, when they decided upon withdrawing the imperial troops from Canada. Even Sir John Young, on his arrival in Canada, at a public function in Quebec expressed sentiments on the question which were interpreted as an invitation to Canada to cut loose from colonial leading strings and declare her independence. On that occasion, July 15th, 1869, Sir John Young said: "At the present moment Canada is in reality independent. It has its own destinies in its own hands, and its statesmen and people are recognized as competent to judge of their interests as to what course to pursue to conciliate those interests. England looks to them for her guidance, and whatever their decision may be, either to continue the present connection or in due time and in the maturity of their growth to exchange it for some other form of alliance."

This warning of the governor-general was not the only indication at the time of the state of public opinion in England towards the colonies. Taken in connection with the withdrawal of British troops from Canada, was it not very significant? Whilst in Canada a great uneasiness was felt with regard to our imperial connection, which the great majority of the people desired to preserve, the *London Times* launched a terrible arraignment of the colonial system. It came in this wise: some Australian gentlemen, being in London, had complained of the indifference and neglect shown by

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the government towards its dominions beyond the seas. To this complaint "The Thunderer" thus answered: "There is no ground for surprise, still less for indignation, if it be asked whether it would not be better for both Englishmen and Australians if the independence the latter have in fact should receive a name. The Dominion of Canada is in all respects independent. It is fitted to become—it has the institutions of—a great power. It is surely a fair subject for inquiry whether it might not assume its appropriate position. Although we do not forget our own warning against the use of metaphors, we must still ask whether the emancipation of the adult is not as desirable to complete the manhood of the son as it is necessary from the inability of the father to understand the peculiar circumstances of his son's life." In their complaint, these Australians, referred to in such snappish manner, spoke of England as the "mother country." This expression, which should at least have gone to the heart of the great organ, only drew ironical criticisms almost insulting to colonists. "Now," said *The Times*, "what is meant by speaking of England as the mother country? What is to be understood by the description of Australia, Canada, and the rest of her colonies? If all that is intended is to remind us of the historical fact that the citizens of Canada, New South Wales, and Victoria are mainly of English origin and descent, we shall not quarrel with the accuracy of the statement, although we

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may doubt the pertinence of the phrases. England is in this sense the mother country of Australia, and just in the same way some other land—without committing ourselves to the quarrels of ethnologists, we may say Schleswig-Holstein—is the mother country of England. Again, it may be observed that if Australia be the child of England, the United States are elder brethren of the same family. It is evident that considerations like these, though extremely interesting in their proper relations, have no necessary connection with the mutual obligations of communities, that is to say, of societies of individuals banded together for purposes of government in different parts of the world. Let us then, in the interest of truth and right conclusions, discard altogether the phrase ‘mother country’ in the discussions which are before us; let us even use with deliberation words apparently so innocent as ‘England’ and ‘colony,’ and remember that what we are called upon to weigh and determine is the proper relations of Englishmen, Australians, and Canadians.” To make the meaning clearer still or to leave no doubt on the mind of the dull colonial, who only too well understood *The Times’* utterances, this paper added: “Incidents like these (the withdrawal of troops and the speeches of public men), coming, too, in quick succession, showed that the executive government of the United Kingdom, acting, as must be presumed, in harmony with the imperial parliament, had resolved upon aban-

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doning the old policy of tutelage, with its pretensions and responsibilities, and urging the colonies by gentle suasion to take up the freedom of their manhood."

Protests against such indications of the British policy came in rapid succession from Canada. Many public men took a despondent view of the situation, but not Cartier, who could never be found in a pessimistic frame of mind. Speaking at a banquet given to Hon. John Rose in Montreal, he strongly took *The Times* to task, and raised the hopes of his hearers. With a keen conception of the future, he predicted that this anti-colonial feeling in England, based on erroneous views of the best interests of the Empire would be of short duration, to make room for larger imperial ideas. Similar expressions were used by Cartier at several other public gatherings. To him, the interests of England and of Canada were so closely intermingled and dependent on each other that it would have been suicidal folly to have separated them. It was this feeling that actuated Cartier when in his despatch to the home government he strongly protested against the withdrawal of the British troops from Canada. Besides his great concern for the imperial prestige, there was another important motive to justify the protest—an imminent Fenian invasion of Canada. It was, he felt, a very abnormal act to order the English regiments from this land, when for the very hatred of England, the Fenians, indifferent to our affairs, had invaded Canada.

CONTRASTED OPINIONS

The description of public opinion in England thirty years ago placed in contrast with what it is to-day, is a subject for reflection. It shows how quickly men's minds travelled from one extreme to the other, and how unfair it is to blame current opinion, which is disagreeable to-day, but which may be acceptable to-morrow. Sentiments freely expressed in Great Britain when *The Times* advised the colonies to look for their independence, would sound like treasonable utterances now. Was it not also a fact worthy of notice that a French Canadian, once in arms against colonial misrule, appeared more British than British-born statesmen, imbued with loftier ideas of what was needed to increase the power and influence of Great Britain?

CHAPTER X

CARTIER AND LA FONTAINE

TO the historian with a philosophical turn of mind, to the ethnologist, the political history of the Province of Quebec is a most interesting study. He cannot help noticing a strong resemblance, proceeding from an affinity of origin, between the Norman barons, who wrested Magna Charta from King John, the men who fought for the prerogatives of parliament against the privilege of the crown under George III., and the Norman-Canadian statesmen who conquered responsible government. Their minds seem to have come out of the same mould, so much alike are they in sagacity, moderation, and the instinct for liberty. Their sense of what a colonial government should be showed itself at a very early stage of our history and with surprising clearness in men born from parents brought up under the personal power of Louis XV.

Under the despotic rule of Governor Craig, who suppressed *Le Canadien*, the first French newspaper of Quebec, Panet, Bédard and Taschereau claim the liberty of the press like Junius, and the independence of parliament after the style of Wilkes, and for their bold stand are sent to jail. When

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Craig orders his minions to set Bédard free, again with English-like sense of honour and respect for law, he refuses to take advantage of the governor's order until he is told under what authority he has been imprisoned, and until he has been regularly tried.

About the same time the members of the assembly, discerning that their control of the provincial finances would surely check the absolute power of the executive, claim from the imperial parliament the burden of supporting the expenses of government by levying taxes. This is granted in 1818. Up to that year it rested with the colonial office to supply the money necessary to defray the civil list of Canada.

As far back as 1808, Bédard had asked for ministerial responsibility, which Lord Durham at a later time declared in his celebrated report, would put an end to the existing troubles. Then came Papineau whose advocacy of reform was admirable so long as he kept himself within the limits of constitutional agitation, before he became a desperate agitator under the exasperating sting of redress of grievances oft promised but always deferred. When the Union Act of 1840 was imposed on Lower Canada, La Fontaine entered his protest against it with all his fellow-citizens, but instead of sulking under his tent in permanent opposition, as some less far-seeing Canadians desired to do, he at once strove to bring forth good results from a well-

BALDWIN AND LA FONTAINE

designed scheme to accomplish evil ends. This he achieved with the concurrence of that great reformer and good man, Robert Baldwin.

In the constitutional battle that ensued between Lord Sydenham and Lord Metcalfe on one side, and La Fontaine on the other, as to the meaning of ministerial responsibility, to an unprejudiced observer La Fontaine had the best of the argument. His opponent held views which would have been laughed out of discussion in England. Although the act of 1840 conceded ministerial responsibility to Canada, it was not the intention of these governors to grant it in its entirety. Even Lord John Russell was opposed to this reform, fearing that the advice which might be given to the representative of the crown in Canada would clash with the instructions from Downing street. Even as late as 1842, the *Montreal Gazette*, then a Tory organ of an antiquated type, denounced ministerial responsibility as a "pernicious and damnable heresy."

It was La Fontaine's and Baldwin's meritorious task to put an end to disputes on constitutional questions, and to that national antagonism which had arrayed one section of the population against the other. Party spirit has often been looked upon as the bane and curse of a country, but in Canada it has proved a blessing. When the Baldwin party joined the Liberal forces of Lower Canada under La Fontaine, to combat the Tory element, the dangerous strife of English against French began

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to abate. Efforts have occasionally been made to revive old national feuds, but the sound sense of our leading statesmen, backed by the conservative instinct of the people at large, has prevented the return of that undisguised evil.

After the constitutional battle had been won, when Lord Elgin, the most enlightened and most popular governor of Canada before confederation, had gracefully helped to carry on responsible government, as they understand it in England, Cartier took the helm in hand. Intelligence and talent are the requisites for success in politics as well as in the other ventures of life, but they must be applied at the proper time, when their powers are specially needed. No one in Canada did more than Cartier to free the country from dangerous influences by keeping the government on party lines with French and English on both sides. In his collected speeches, delivered on public occasions either in Quebec, Ontario or the Maritime Provinces, reference is always made to the importance of maintaining harmonious intercourse between the different nationalities, of cultivating sentiments of mutual forbearance; in his mind it was the statesman's duty to avoid any cause of friction between these antagonistic elements.

It was his constant aim to spread among certain classes of the Upper Canadian population correct notions concerning the French Canadians. He was the first of his nationality to meet the western farmers

HIS CONCILIATORY EFFORTS

and make them feel that their unknown partners in the Union were not as black as they had been painted. The prejudices in Upper Canada, which he contributed largely to dispel, were so great about 1839, that the Toronto city council and the House of Assembly, as shown before, asked Governor Poulett Thomson to disenfranchise the French population of Lower Canada. Thanks to his liberal views Cartier ingratiated himself with the English and Protestant population of Lower Canada, whose confidence he never lost during his twenty-five years of public life. His conduct, which should be that of every Canadian statesman, was not always well understood among his countrymen and some of his opponents were pleased to represent him as an anglo-maniac, with an excessive fondness for everything British. This reproach is, however, one of those stock-in-trade attacks made against almost every minister bent on giving equal justice to all, without regard to church or flag. For the good of the country these two Norman-Canadians, La Fontaine and Cartier, almost ruled it from 1841 to 1867, during that régime which had been designed for the very purpose of keeping them and their friends out of power. La Fontaine with all Lower Canada at his back, joined hands with the small Liberal following of Baldwin. When he retired to private life, at the advent of the Reformers in Upper Canada, under George Brown, Morin, Taché and Cartier at the head of the Lower Canada

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Liberals, formed a new alliance with their old opponents, the Tories or Conservatives of the MacNab and Macdonald type. To sum up the part these two men played with their associates in our history, it may be said that La Fontaine with Baldwin fought and won the constitutional battle, whilst Cartier, with the help of Macdonald, contrived to establish the political union of the country, showing conclusively that in spite of the dissimilarities of a mixed community, it can easily be governed and made prosperous.

Under the Cartier-Macdonald alliance, the country was again ruled by a party composed largely of Lower Canada members, thus giving the French leader a strong hold over the House. It was then that George Brown denounced what he was pleased to call the French domination, a war cry which would have been reasonable if Macdonald and Cartier could ever have been inspired by racial or religious prejudice, an hypothesis out of the question. The alliance of those two men was certainly beneficial to the country. After he had broken away—an early experience having shown him his initial error—from his first associations, John A. Macdonald aided his ally in removing existing prejudices in Upper Canada against the eastern province, and in establishing the principles which must govern public men in a community like ours composed of two separate and distinct races. Both, though differently gifted, were born

TWO METHODS OF LEADERSHIP

leaders of men, Cartier with his imperative ways and Macdonald with his power of persuasion and cunning. The latter had a deep view of the human heart, a greater contempt for its secret impulses, and knew what spring must be touched to influence it. Cartier claimed the leadership because from his own conception it belonged to him on account of his superior qualification. He was the necessary man and the only one. A long use of power and blind obedience from his followers had developed within his mind peculiar ideas as to his position. He exacted from his friends absolute submission and when confronted with the remarks from members of parliament that such and such votes were difficult to give, he would bluntly reply : "I want your support during stormy times ; don't claim credit for supporting me when it is all plain sailing."

Macdonald led his men with a wink and a smile; he fascinated them with a tap on the shoulder and they were pleased to take the password from such a clever and skilled leader. Amiable as he was with the rank and file, he was absolute in council. One of his colleagues, a prominent politician, often told me that his rule was personal power to its full extent. This absoluteness of mind in Macdonald, and equally strong conviction in Cartier, often brought these two men into antagonism. They were pleased, when addressing the masses, to eulogize each other, to praise their friendship, to refer to the popular saying that they were Siamese twins,

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but when looked at by the light of facts, this close amity has the character, to a great extent, of those numberless legends which makes Renan call history "that conjectural science." The truth is that numerous conflicts took place between them, and that the alliance was maintained only by mutual interests and a strong sense of public duty. The elements which made up their forces were so conflicting, so antagonistic, that they unavoidably fostered division between the leaders. Just imagine, Cartier whipping into line the most Catholic section of Lower Canada, and Macdonald supported by the Orange Order ! It must have required no ordinary generalship on the part of these two men to marshal under one flag soldiers who rallied to symbols representing such antagonistic ideas.

It is generally believed that their most serious estrangement occurred in London, whilst the British North America Act was before parliament. John A. Macdonald desired, it is said, to have it modified so that a legislative union should be substituted for the proposed federation. To this, Cartier objected strongly and made no mystery of his intention to return to Canada, if his colleague persisted in his determination to alter the constitution as it was adopted in Quebec. It is also reported that he had warned the then Canadian premier, Sir N. F. Belleau, to be prepared to resign at a moment's notice, on receiving a cablegram to that effect. This statement has been given out without

CARTIER AND MACDONALD

contradiction, in the Quebec press, by a distinguished French journalist, Oscar Dunn, and also by a very intimate friend of Cartier, Louis Archambault, for several years a member of the Quebec government. A gentleman now on the staff of an important paper in Montreal and once his confidential adviser, confirmed this statement to the writer. In spite of these very respectable witnesses we would hesitate to credit it. How could Macdonald have broken his pledged word of honour, his solemn declaration in the House at Quebec, with the hope of being sustained on his return to Canada? Was he sure that even Ontario would have followed him, after having accepted confederation? Is it conceivable that after the labours and toils of three years, he would have thrown all results to the winds and begun anew to educate the people to another state of things? Still the evidence on the other side is very respectable and makes the solution difficult. *Et adhuc sub judice lis est.*

CHAPTER XI

CHARACTER AND POLICY

THE mental equipment of Cartier, combined with his moral qualities, served to fit him admirably for power. What men lack most in our age is that sterling endowment called character. Eloquent speakers and clever debaters are found in large numbers in the ranks of our talented politicians, but where is that firmness of mind, that unswerving integrity so necessary to those entrusted with great public functions? These requisite qualities had developed in Cartier to no ordinary degree, and enabled him to see his way clear and to hold the helm with no wavering hand. His earnestness of purpose, resting on the best information derived from conscientious examination of the matter to be acted upon, made him sure that the direction he gave to the ship was the best. Of this all his supporters were persuaded as well as himself.

He was also a man of quick resolves—procrastination did not suit his temper. It was a general belief at the time in Montreal that if it had been his task to lead the Conservative party during the Canadian Pacific Railway scandal, he would have forced a decision during the session in which the charge had been made when the government had a majority of

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thirty-five votes. His friends put off the investigation for months, with the result that, under influences not counteracted by the presence of ministers, that majority dwindled to naught. Tactics and manœuvring were within his aptitudes, as was shown in 1862. Seeing that he had lost his hold on a large number of his supporters, he chose to be defeated on the Militia Bill, well knowing that his opponents would have to come before parliament with a plan for the reorganization of the militia, and a plan probably more open to criticism than the one they had condemned. His generalship and foresight in that crisis were both remarkable, for everything turned out as he had expected. As to his leadership in Lower Canada, his ideas were formulated to conserve the special interests of the French Canadians. It was his conviction that they would be endangered if his countrymen were about evenly divided between the two political parties. So it was his constant aim to concentrate their forces in a compact body. Fearing at one time that these would scatter, he tried the extreme, the desperate means of re-uniting under his command the Liberals and Conservatives. With this object in view, he offered Dorion a seat in the cabinet when he was called to form the administration of 1858. His proposal was declined, as Dorion would not forego his democratic principles. It is said that the Liberal leader was inclined to form a coalition, but that his lieutenants, Papin, Doutre, Dessaulles,

SOME STRONG CHARACTERISTICS

and Laflamme, raised such a storm of protest that Dorion did not dare to follow his own inclination. It was also hinted at the time that Cartier's offer lacked sincerity—that he made it simply because he knew that it could not be accepted, for the purpose of throwing on Dorion the responsibility and odium of the French Canadian disunion. This is, however, only an hypothesis and a surmise wholly out of harmony with Cartier's mode of dealing with political affairs. Seeing the impossibility of uniting his countrymen through an alliance with his opponents, he made up his mind to achieve his end by destroying the Liberal party. In this he succeeded to a great extent.

A leader's qualifications are not made up alone of high intellectual powers. He must at times descend to the level of the average mortal, and exhibit qualities of a meaner order though of the utmost importance in the management of a party. Within the home circle, Cartier was genial and amiable. Brillat-Savarin, the great philosopher of gastronomy, remarks that when a man entertains a guest, he must never forget that he has the responsibility of making him happy as long as he is under his roof. Cartier's action was shaped after this doctrine. In his usual vocations his temper would at times break out in a storm of violent words, but the storm soon passed away. He affected a certain brusqueness in receiving persons who he feared would trespass on his time; he adopted these tactics to ward off bores

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and to avoid the worries of solicitors. His frankness would at first displease those unacquainted with his peculiarities. For instance, if a young man requested his influence for a civil service appointment, the invariable answer would be this: "I have no situation to give. Besides, you should not ask for a favour of this kind. Do as I have done—work hard and you will succeed. Turn your attention towards another field. If you enter the civil service, in a few years dissatisfaction will be your lot." Still, if the applicant was better fitted for a public office than a law office or any other employment, he would send for him when vacancies in his department came under his disposal. It was not his policy to hold out promises which he was not sure to keep. True to his motto, he was always and everywhere *franc et sans dol*.

He was no orator, in the academic sense of the word, but a very effective debater, always convincing, drawing and retaining the attention of his hearers by the splendid array of his arguments. Of middle size, but of a strong frame, with an intelligent face and eyes full of fire, he gave the impression of a man of untiring energy and courage. Always in motion, pivoting on himself, gazing at his friends to infuse them with his burning enthusiasm, and then in turn at his opponents to challenge them to contradiction, he never failed to make a mark in debate. What gave his speeches an extraordinary effect over his supporters was the

HIS SELF-CONFIDENCE AND OPTIMISM

overflowing optimism which he seemed to possess. To soar above his audience was never one of his characteristics. Facts and nothing but facts, well bound together and cemented with overpowering logic, constituted the bones, sinews, and flesh of Cartier's oratory. Figures of speech, all rhetorical ornaments, he despised, but pointed repartees formed part of his defense. He had little of what the French called *esprit*, but he appeared at times brim full of humour. The over-confidence in himself which he often displayed—his optimism—would at times amaze his audience or draw a smile to the lips of the sceptics in the House. Whilst he was delivering his speech on the confederation scheme, C. Dunkin, a member of the opposition, interrupted him to express his doubts as to the possibility of successfully carrying on the future government. "The man," he said, "who under such a system will succeed in leading the Commons for six different provinces, and also to keep up as many legislative councils and Houses of Assembly, would deserve to be sent to England to teach the political alphabet to Palmerston and Derby." Upon this remark the following dialogue ensued:

Cartier.—"This could easily be done."

Dunkin.—"The honourable minister never sees any difficulty in all he undertakes to do."

Cartier.—"And I have seldom failed. I have generally got the success I had desired."

Dunkin.—"Yes, under favourable circumstances,

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but the honourable gentleman has also met with reverses. I believe in the omniscience of no one. It will be no easy task to meet the exigencies of race and religion with three provincial ministers."

Cartier.—"Hear! hear!"

Dunkin.—"The attorney-general thinks he would be able to overcome that difficulty."

Cartier.—"Certainly." (Laughter.)

Dunkin.—"Well, if the honourable gentleman succeeds in meeting the requests of Lower Canada with only three ministers of that province in the cabinet, he will prove that he is the cleverest man in the country."

On another occasion, after a very bold argument from Cartier in a certain debate, Mr. Wright, of the county of Ottawa, exclaimed: "*Semper audax*," and Cartier answered: "*Audaces fortuna juvat*."

Speaking in 1872 in the House, on the Fenian invasion of Canada, he referred to certain criticisms that had been directed against the militia. Sir R. Cartwright, thinking the allusion referred to him, said that his remarks had only been pointed against some chiefs. Cartier replied: "Let the honourable gentleman attack me, and he will see how I can defend myself."

Cartwright. — "The honourable gentleman is plucky enough to undertake anything."

With this humour and these witty retorts was coupled an immense amount of general information on all matters pertaining to politics. His ambition

THE REASONS FOR HIS CONSERVATISM

urged him to be always the best posted man in any discussion. Before confederation, when John A. Macdonald was not so thorough nor laborious in his methods as he became afterwards, it was Cartier's task to supply the deficiencies of his friend and of his other colleagues at all times. That knowledge he had acquired through incessant labour at the rate of fourteen hours a day during forty years of his life. His mind never had the brilliancy of Sir John's, but his industry and diligence, in the days referred to, were greater.

As to the peculiar tendency of his ideas, it can be said that they smacked of old style conservatism in principles, with great liberalism in action, when the material interests of the country were concerned. A man's ideas are more or less influenced or biased by his surroundings, by events occurring under his eyes. Cartier's conservatism was derived from his undisguised hatred of the French radicalism of 1848, which some of his opponents tried to transplant to Canada. His intense devotion to British connection, in which he saw the only means of maintaining the French nationality intact in North America, also contributed to turn his mind against all new fangled notions. At the noon-tide of his life he was also very much impressed by the great conflict going on in the sixties, south of Canada, which then threatened the unity of the great Republic.

It was the fault of the American constitution, according to his views, that the war of

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secession had taken place; and that struggle supplied him with arguments demonstrating the superiority of the English institutions over those of our neighbours.

His speeches were replete with advice to his countrymen, which he repeated until it became tame and commonplace. They must, he told them, concentrate all their energies to rise to the requirements of the British constitution; they must be satisfied to live under the Union Jack and enjoy the great liberty it secures to their ambition to constitute a distinct nationality.

Another condition to their separate existence he was also fond of propounding: the importance of acquiring property. Speaking on the grave of Duvernay, the patriot agitator of 1837, he said: "Let us never forget that if we desire to maintain our national existence, we must cling to the soil. One and all of us must strive to hold our patrimonial territory. Number alone does not constitute a nation. Race, language, education and manners form what I would call the personal national element, which is doomed to perish if it is not supported by the territorial element. Experience shows that in order to ensure permanency and a lasting existence to any nation, the union of the individual with the land is absolutely required. . . . If in the future an attempt was made to destroy our nationality, what strength would not the French Canadians gather if they were firmly planted in the soil?

HIS VIEWS ON PROPERTY

The giant Antæus of the fable used to draw a new supply of vitality whenever he touched the earth; the same result would happen with us." After referring to the peaceful rivalry which must exist between the different races in Canada, he added, "If the majestic maple tree is the king of our forest and is always to be found on the best soil, the French Canadians who place its emblematic leaf on their breasts must, like that tree, plant themselves in the best and most fertile land."

Property always inspired him with great respect. In his eyes it should be like a column in the state to prop up the constitution. It was his aim to place it as the first requisite for the right of suffrage, and as the basis of qualification for membership in the Upper House. In 1853 the legislative council was made an elective body. It had been up to that year composed of crown nominees. Cartier made a strong plea in favour of property qualifications for the members of that House. "A man," he said, "who acquires property by his labour and energy will take better care of public moneys than one who has spent his time dabbling in politics. Besides all constitutions which draw the youth of a country away from acquiring property and from industry are dangerous. Rising generations must be taught to earn money at home before taking part in politics." These pleas in favour of the possession of land were uttered when France was still trembling under the violent diatribes of the famous and

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powerful communist writer, Proudhon, who said that "Property was robbery."

In politics, as in love and in war, for some people, everything is fair against an opponent or a rival. According to this convenient but immoral principle of conduct, some of Cartier's foes were pleased to represent him as afflicted with anglomania, to the extent of aiming at the anglicization of his countrymen. Nothing could have been further from the truth than this remark. He, for a certain time, overlooked it, thinking it was beneath contempt, but when one day it was hurled at him in the House, he resented it bitterly, and turning to the member who had dared to make this charge, he said: "The honourable gentleman has even stated that it was my object to anglicize my countrymen. Well, if he ever occupies my present seat I hope he will place upon the statute book measures as favourable to them as those of which I am proud of being the author. Does he not know what a long struggle I had to bear in order to obtain the construction through Lower Canada of the Grand Trunk Railway, which now affords to my countrymen new facilities to increase their wealth, adds value to their land and opens fresh fields to colonization? Have I not, in 1855, given normal schools to Lower Canada, and opened 3,000 new common schools? Have I not restored the Jesuits' property to its primitive destination—education? Have I not introduced the French laws in the Eastern Town-

HIS ECONOMIC CREED

ships? Did anyone think before me of consolidating the *Coutume de Paris* into a civil code, which places within easy reach both of the English and French population, the laws of our province? Is not the law dividing the province into a large number of judiciary districts extremely beneficial both to the lawyers and the people? Was not the Seigniorial Act which suppressed the *lods et ventes* dues a desirable measure?"

To face such charges as those brought against Cartier is the common lot of all public men in a community like ours. They are in turn, and at the same time, charged with being too French or too English, too friendly to the Catholics or to the Protestants. When a statesman has nothing but these conflicting charges to combat, one may be sure that he is governing according to the general interests of the country. Methods of criticizing and making opposition are numerous and varied, whilst there is but one way to govern.

Cartier's ideas on political economy as bearing on Canada were not fixed; he does not seem to have inclined markedly to either free trade or protection, but stood midway between the extremes of the two economic creeds. On this ground, and on this only, he was an opportunist. "The manufacturers often ask," he said, one day, "to be protected to the utmost. This is an absurd demand, as absurd as the claims of the free traders. If we were to comply with the demands of the latter we would

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be compelled to pay to the government through direct taxation the same amount that protection would give in an indirect manner. With unlimited protection, you would strike a terrible blow at our foreign trade. We shall not go in for such a suicidal policy. The government has decided to impose duties which will bring into the exchequer the revenue required for public service and afford to our industries a reasonable protection."

Political economy, that uncertain science containing so many high sounding doctrines at variance with their results in cold experience; political economy which one hundred years after Adam Smith has not yet formulated any accepted law for the development of wealth, could not suit an absolute mind like Cartier's. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that his ideas wavered between protection and free trade. In this only, did they show a tendency to oscillate. In other matters, he was absolute to an extreme; the principles of the British constitution, for example, as it has already been shown, were to him like dogmas. He never doubted for one moment that these institutions, in their *ensemble*, were the masterpiece of human ingenuity.

To quote Sir Wilfrid Laurier's opinion of Cartier: "What strikes one most in this complex nature, is that he takes hold of every question from the highest point of view. He has never been seen to shun any responsibility by appealing to popular

HIS RELIGIOUS VIEWS

prejudices which always offer an easy retreat. In whatever situation he is placed he faces it boldly and nobly. It is curious to note here that however high and brave the conclusion he comes to, the grandeur of the subject never draws any inspiration from him. He always remains exclusively a man of action and a business man, without any bright thoughts or clever sentences. It is impossible to read his speeches, with their dullness of expression, without arriving at the conclusion that they come from a person whose political intelligence is of the highest order. Very few men have understood as well as he did the situation of the French race. Very few have had a clearer conception of the duties connected with that situation."

This firmness of conviction which characterized his views in politics followed him in the higher field of religion. Here he rose above the average men of his day and especially of his youth when rationalism had taken hold of not a few of his contemporaries. Voltaire, d'Alembert and Diderot were then much read and thought of in Lower Canada. Cartier never went out of his way to court the clergy, never made a show of his religious belief, but from boyhood, under family and afterwards school influence, he closely adhered to the tenets of that faith which seeks to elevate and offers cheering hopes beyond death.

Early influences often follow a man in after life, and explain, in many cases, his temperament and

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general demeanour. It is noticeable in Cartier's career that the associations of his youth left their mark in his mind. The surroundings in which he was brought up were peculiar enough to impress him strongly. In those days, prior to the uprising of 1837, the country along the Richelieu river and in the more progressive parts of Lower Canada offered scenes of patriarchal life quite unknown anywhere else. It is still usual in the province to refer to that period as *le bon vieux temps* (the good old times). Then Lower Canada was a land of plenty, of cakes and honey, of constant merriment and enjoyment of the good things of life. If the *habitants* worked hard in summer from dawn until sunset, or, as one of them said to me in a poetical sentence, if he toiled *d'une étoile à l'autre*, that is, from the disappearance of the morning star to the rising of the evening star, his labours were amply rewarded at harvest time. He then saw his granaries full to overflowing of heavy sheaves and of all the products of the garden and farm. As soon as his rich crops lay secure in the barn, the bell would give the signal for feasts and amusement; and winter, the thoughts of whose hardships send a chill through foreigners, saw merry scenes. All Lower Canada was alive with a long succession of entertainments, dinners, parties and dances. The dinners—*fricots* as they were called—went the round of a parish, every guest at the first one given in the beginning of the winter being in duty

THE GOOD OLD TIMES

bound to return the compliment. And in the profusion of eatables they recalled the Rabelaisian feasts. The golden, roasted turkey kept company with the huge roast of pork, or *porc-frais à l'ail*, which the late chief justice of Quebec (Sir W. Johnston) looked upon as the masterpiece of the Canadian cuisine, and *ragoûts* of all descriptions loaded the table. It was the ambition of every housekeeper, who had a true sense of hospitality, to hide the table-cloth with all the delicacies which the country and her skill could supply. To that end every space between the plates and dishes was crowded with smaller plates, saucers filled with jellies, bon-bons, *crème brûlée*, and the like.

It was the writer's good luck to be present, in his younger days, at one of these repasts, and not since has he witnessed such joy, such open heartedness, and also such appetites. As the evening passed away in pleasure a demand for songs arose, and the local artists sang those which every one in the room knew to the last line. They were the rhymes called *chanson de ronde*, which the soldiers of the king of France sang through their campaigns from the east to the west of Canada, from the shores of Lake George to the banks of the Ohio, at Fort Duquesne and Ticonderoga. They are still familiar all over Quebec. The chorus of one of them lingers yet in my memory just as I heard it from the mouth of the singer, who after each stanza would turn to mine host and shout:

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Bonhomme, bonhomme,
Tu n'es pas maître dans ta maison
Quand nous y sommes.¹

Such festivities were not confined to the limits of the parish. These Canadians of old would exchange amenities with all the villages along the Richelieu river, from St. Ours to Chambly. Many and many gay drives did this river see after having witnessed in earlier days the plodding of Montcalm's soldiers on their way to the glorious battlefield of Carillon. The Richelieu was in olden times the highway between New France and the English colonies; and the route was also followed by the invaders of 1775 and 1812. Fortunately the Lenten season came at last to put a stop to these agreeable but rather expensive pastimes. It is true that in order not to break off too suddenly from this pleasure-making there was still the gathering in the woods around the cauldron of boiling maple sap, which afforded another great source of amusement.

St. Antoine, Cartier's birthplace, enjoyed great prosperity during the first half of the nineteenth century. Cartier stated in a speech at Quebec that his grandfather exported annually 500,000 bushels of wheat bought in that section of the country. He was a merchant, and the house in which he carried on his trade is still extant. It is well known about the country on account of its size, for it extends three

¹ "Old fellow, old fellow, you are not the lord of this house when we are here."

A CUSTOM OF LOWER CANADA

times the length of the other dwellings. It goes by the name of the *maison aux sept cheminées*, the house with seven chimneys. An explanation as to the necessity for such a large establishment affords details of some interest to persons not familiar with all the peculiarities of Lower Canada. One section of this long house was set apart for the family, another contained the storehouse and the remainder was intended to lodge *rentiers*. According to a long-standing custom, farmers or tradespeople who are growing old, enter into an agreement with a neighbour of some means in the parish, under which they give all their property to the latter in exchange for a life annuity (hence the title of *rentiers*). I have before me one of those *contrats de donation*, which enumerates all that the *rentier* is entitled to, from tobacco and snuff to an everlasting cow (*une vache qui ne meurt pas*), and a merchantable hog (*un cochon marchand*). These annuities cause trouble whenever the *rentier* succeeds in lingering beyond the day he is expected to die. The Cartiers seem to have made it a part of their business to enter upon these risks, to judge by the appointments of their house.

After reading the above sketchy description of the state of Lower Canada, the question naturally occurs: How can you account for the uprising of 1837, if the people were so happy in the "good old time"? The query is quite natural and must be answered. The troubles had an aristocratic, not

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a popular origin. It was the best people of the country that rose in rebellion against the Château St. Louis: Papineau, Panet, Bédard, Bourdages and their friends, men of high culture, the real aristocracy, became exasperated in time at the contemptuous manner in which they were constantly treated. As to the *habitant*, he enjoyed religious liberty and exemption from taxation; he was satisfied with his lot and would not have moved if the red hot tirades of Papineau had not persuaded him that he had a grievance. Still this discontent was far from being general and deep-rooted, as the uprising confined to the region of Montreal has shown.

The surroundings in which Cartier's youth was spent, as already observed, had their influence on his mind, and contributed with the genial nature of his race to keep alive in his soul that high spirit which was so remarkable in his conduct all through life. Never was he found despondent; no situation, however dark, saw him without an outburst of wit or humour.

In social functions at home he was most entertaining. No guest ever left his house but happy and satisfied with his host. He was what the French call a *boute-en-train*, a person who will get out of every one the best that is in him. A lady musician—the wife of a Liberal senator—once told me that whenever she met Cartier at social functions, he would insist upon having her give a specimen of her talent, and if reluctant, he would end his

VOYAGEURS' SONGS

entreaties by saying: "Please play, not for my sake, but to show these English folks that if the French Canadians have not their talent for money-making, they are more artistically gifted. Do that for patriotism!" In Ottawa, his receptions at that very modest house at the corner of Maria and Metcalfe streets are still remembered by many. There, on Saturday evenings during the session, congregated members of parliament, journalists, civil servants, and not a few local artists, and, under the guidance of his cheerful spirit, the evening wore on merrily. One feature of these entertainments was unique, a sort of active representation of choruses as sung by the North-West *voyageurs*. Commandant Fortin, of the famous schooner *La Canadienne*, and Simpson, of Algoma, would set a row of a dozen chairs facing in the same direction. All those present, able to sing, would be seated on these chairs, and, taking the lead from Fortin, with his deep, full notes, would sing a *voyageur's* song. To give gusto to the performance, each improvised *voyageur* would swing his arms as though he were paddling a canoe, and this chorus would come again and again:

V'là le bon vent,
V'là le joli vent
Ma mie m'appelle,
V'là le bon vent,
V'là le joli vent
Ma mie m'attend !

How few now remain of the gay performers who welcomed the breeze that was bringing them to their

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lady love (*ma mie*)! These entertainments offered a happy relaxation to Cartier, one of the most active of men; one who thought nothing of spending throughout the year fourteen hours a day in a field of labour much more exhausting than the one where eight hours is considered the limit of human strength. He valued time above all things, and anyone trespassing uselessly on it would become his enemy. In order to save it, he would assume with some visitors an air of *brusquerie* and bad humour quite discouraging to bores and place hunters. It was his habit to walk the streets of Montreal or Ottawa at a rapid gait, so that as few people as possible could waylay him to indulge in gossip or town talk.

I have made frequent references to his courage in the face of adverse circumstances, and in again referring to that great quality, it seems only right to refer to the characteristically bold stand which he felt compelled to take when a personal matter arose which, as is frequently the case, had a wider than individual interest.

After confederation, the imperial government distributed honours to reward those colonial statesmen who had taken a prominent part in the work of uniting the British North American provinces. The distinction of knighthood was conferred on John A. Macdonald, whilst Cartier, who had in 1858, while premier of Canada, initiated the union scheme, only received a C.B.

THE REFUSAL OF A DECORATION

He at once notified Lord Monck that he could not accept the proffered honour, alleging as a motive for declining it, that, as the representative of the French in Canada, he could not consent to see them placed in a position inferior to that occupied by the other element of our population. The stand taken by Cartier, which was then generally approved, greatly embarrassed the colonial office, and a rather unpleasant correspondence ensued.

Edward Watkin, then president of the Grand Trunk Railway, a warm friend of Cartier and one who had taken a great interest in the confederation scheme, had also declined a C.B., because he thought an injustice had been done to the minister of militia. What complicated that delicate matter was the fact that such a refusal is disrespectful to the Crown, and therefore some way out of the trouble had to be looked for that would save appearances. The colonial secretary informed Lord Monck of the tangle and Cartier in turn explained it to Watkin in a letter dated, Ottawa, February 15th, 1868.

“With regard to my matter, would you imagine that the Duke of Buckingham has written a confidential note to Lord Monck, telling to this latter that there being no precedent for a resignation of the C.B., the only way to have my wishes carried out would be by the Queen directing by order in the *Gazette* my name to be struck out from the Order, which proceeding, the Duke adds, would be

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construed by outsiders and the uninitiated as the outcome of misconduct. Lord Monck having communicated to me the substance of the Duke's communication, I have asked Lord Monck to obtain from the Duke leave to communicate to me the substance of his note in no confidential manner, in order that I may reply to it. I do not really think that the intention is to frighten me, in order to induce me to withdraw my letter asking leave to resign the C.B. That I will not do, and when the Duke's communication is under my eyes in no confidential manner, I will send such a reply that will make people understand the injury done to me, and the slight so absurdly offered to a million of good and loyal French Canadians. As a matter of course all that I say to you in this letter is strictly in confidence to you."

The matter was brought up in the Canadian House of Commons and during the debate general sympathy was expressed for Cartier, whose temper was still more aroused when he read in the *London Gazette* that the way out of the trouble which the Duke of Buckingham deprecated, had just been followed. So in great indignation he again wrote to Watkin:

"You very likely must have seen or heard of the notification published in the *London Gazette* at the end of the month of December last about the honours distributed in Canada in connection with the confederation. In that notification you must have seen that the names of myself and Galt

THE FRICTION ABOUT A TITLE

are omitted, and it was stated in that notification that it must be substituted for the one published on July 9th last, in which Galt's name and mine were inserted as C.B. Now you must recollect that some months ago I wrote you about a confidential communication of the Duke of Buckingham to Lord Monck, in order that it should be intimated to me and Galt, that there was no precedent of a resignation of the Order of the Bath, and that the only way left for the carrying out of Galt's wishes and mine would be by an order of Her Majesty ordering our names to be struck off the roll. The communication of the Duke having been made to me in a confidential manner, I had no opportunity to answer it. I had written to Lord Monck to ask the Duke's leave for communicating to me in no confidential manner the despatch of the Duke, in order to give me an opportunity to answer it. I never had any answer from Lord Monck to that request. To my great surprise, at the end of December last, I received from Lord Monck a note, accompanied by the copy of a despatch from the Duke, informing me that a mode had been found to meet my wishes and those of Galt, which consisted in the publication in the *London Gazette* of a notification omitting our names, and such notification to be substituted for the former one of July last.

“The reading of this last despatch more than astonished me, and my astonishment was greater when I saw by the *London Gazette* that it was

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carried into effect by the notification above alluded to. I have had no more opportunity to answer the second despatch of the Duke than the first one, which was marked confidential. Allow me to add that the Duke expressed in his first communication that he did not like to suggest that my name should be struck off the roll, because an ungenerous construction now and hereafter might be made against me by those not acquainted with the fact. Now, by the course followed, as explained in his second despatch, I feel as badly treated as if the first course had been adopted. In one case my name would have been ordered to be struck off the roll, and by the second course followed, my name was ordered to be omitted in the second notification. There is not much difference between these two courses. I have written a letter to Lord Monck to complain of the second course followed, inasmuch as there being no reason assigned for the omission of my name in the second notification, a construction ungenerous to myself and my children after me could now and hereafter be made."

This matter might have been left where the *London Gazette* notice had placed it, but Sir Charles Tupper, who was then in London, interfered, and with great tact had it settled. It was owing to his timely intervention that justice was done and Cartier became a baronet of the United Kingdom. This squabble over a title would look very small were it not that it involved a question of

A HAPPY CONCLUSION

national feeling which raised it to more importance than it really deserved.¹

¹ I insert here Sir Charles Tupper's letter, which has not before been published :

WESTMINSTER PALACE HOTEL, *March 31st, 1868.*

MY LORD DUKE:

Deeply impressed with the importance which attaches to everything calculated to strengthen the loyal devotion to the Crown which I am proud to know pervades every portion of the Dominion of Canada, and well knowing the warm interest which your Grace feels toward that portion of the empire, I venture to solicit an official interview for the purpose of communicating my views upon the desirability of submitting to Her Majesty the propriety of conferring upon the Hon. Mr. Cartier, the Minister of Militia, as high a mark of the royal favour as that bestowed upon Sir John A. Macdonald. Although I had the honour of proposing the latter gentleman as Chairman of the Conference of British North America delegates, held here in 1866, I think it but right to inform your Grace that but for the patriotic devotion of Mr. Cartier to the great project of confederation, and the courage with which, in the face of great difficulties and dangers he pursued that policy to the end, *the union could not have been accomplished.* I rejoice that it was the royal pleasure to confer deservedly a distinction so high upon Mr. Macdonald, but I regard it as a great misfortune that a million of Catholic Frenchmen, than whom Her Majesty has no subjects more loyally devoted to Her throne and person in any portion of Her empire, should feel that one of their own race and religion, whose standing was equally high in Canada, and whose claim to royal favour was as great, should not have been deemed worthy of the same gracious consideration. It is also right that I should say to your Grace that Mr. Cartier's acceptance of an inferior distinction would undoubtedly have destroyed the great influence which he wields among his countrymen, and impaired the power he is now able to exert so beneficially in the service of his Sovereign. I may also add that the liberty I have taken in bringing this matter under the notice of your Grace is inspired by no personal consideration, and is entirely without the knowledge of Mr. Cartier.

I have the honour to remain,

TO HIS GRACE

THE DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

Your Grace's most obedient servant,

(Signed) CHARLES TUPPER.

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In social intercourse Cartier always gave evidence of that sincerity and frankness which was one of the chief traits of his character. This he would show even at the risk of incurring personal displeasure. It was his frankness that once drew upon him the wrath of General Wolseley. Meeting Sir John A. Macdonald at dinner, I asked him if he could tell me why this officer had gone out of his way to signal out Cartier for adverse criticism from among all his colleagues. "For speaking his mind too openly," answered Sir John. "While I was at Washington, General Wolseley called upon Cartier to solicit the position of first lieutenant governor of Manitoba. My friend told him that this could not be done. By the way, the government had then decided to appoint Archibald to that important position. General Wolseley assumed from Cartier's answer that he disliked him, and hence his uncalled-for attack on the then minister of militia. But," added Sir John, "the general must have found out afterwards that, had Cartier and the government granted his request, they would have cut short his career. Returning to England after five years' absence he would have found himself a forgotten man, no more in touch with court influence, and would probably have been sent to some inferior command."

Cartier gave every one who saw him in parliament or in society the impression of being a quick and daring man, without any timidity. I was astonished when his nearest relative, now alive, and

HIS FAILING HEALTH

another member of his family assured me last summer in Paris that he was the victim of a sort of uneasiness whenever he had to perform public duties. "He must have conquered that feeling afterwards," said I, "for he always looked to me as one full of assurance." "No," was the reply, "he fought against a native timidity all his life." If this be true the fact of the matter is that his very existence was but one long struggle, first against timidity, then against his natural defect, a rather disagreeable voice—a very bad English accent, and against the last but not the least, strong political opponents. No wonder that he broke down so early in life—no wonder that the blade wore out the scabbard so soon! He was not fifty-nine at his demise, and had spent twenty-five years in public life.

The session of 1872 marked Cartier's last appearance in parliament. It was a laborious session, and he had, as was his wont, taken a prominent part in its labours, conducting the debate on the Canadian Pacific Railway bill and the New Brunswick school question. Shortly after prorogation, his health, which had never given him anxiety, seemed suddenly to break down, and when he arrived in Montreal to seek re-election, he was a very sick, nay, more than that, a dying man. His great energy would keep him up on his feet a few hours a day. It is a fact that on July 21st he left his bed to be present at the nomination of candidates for Montreal East, and that all through the

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campaign the fatal disease told on him more and more. Would to heaven that he had not faced the howling mob who at several meetings, forgetting that he had turned the tide of prosperity towards the commercial metropolis of Canada, hooted their old idol, and pelted him with stones and missiles! He would have been spared an ugly sight which added humiliation to his defeat.

It has often been the lot of successful politicians during the greater part of their career, to witness the tide of popular favour receding from them at its close. Cartier experienced the bitterness of such a situation with a pang which his illness, in its depressing effect, prevented him from concealing, although he did his best to put on a brave face. But when received at Ottawa with almost royal honours, he recalled the circumstances which induced Baldwin and La Fontaine to retire from politics, on account of the ingratitude of persons whom they had so long served, it was his own case he had in mind. He left Canada in September, 1872, never to return alive. Science did nothing for the man who had not known rest and was to know it only in death. He died in London on May 23rd, having had time to prepare for the great voyage and to ponder over the want of satisfaction which a life of agitation affords. Well might he have said like the great man of ancient times: "I have had everything that my country could give and it is worth nothing!"

HIS HONOURED MEMORY

After his death his fellow-countrymen duly appreciated his labours and recognized his sterling merit. Still not a square, not a street of Montreal bears his name. It might have been expected that before thirty years had elapsed, his friends would have gathered up the stones which were hurled at him one day, to form the pedestal of a monument recalling his public services and his devotion to his country. Perhaps, after all, they have thought that the best way in which to honour the memory of a man whose soul had the ring of pure metal, whose valuable actions appear in the lasting pages of history, is to follow in his footsteps and emulate his example.

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